THE

INDIAN MIDDLE SCHOOL GRAMMAR.

BY

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PREFACE.

The "Indian Middle School Grammar" was prepared at the request of the Text-Book Committee, which met in Lucknow in April, 1891.

It has been prepared with special reference to the Grammatical course prescribed for the Middle English Examination in this Province, and to the Middle standard, which usually prevails at A.-V. schools elsewhere. It does not go into those parts of Grammar, which are reserved for matriculation, such as the Synthesis of sentences, the Analysis of words, and the Figures of Rhetoric; but it goes rather minutely into every part of Grammar that leads up to these.

The author in preparing this book has kept three objects mainly in view:—(1) to make it exhaustive; (2) to make it explanatory; and (3) to make it practical.

That an *exhaustive* Grammar of some kind was needed is shewn by the fact that teachers and students are at present compelled to hunt about for particular points from one book to another. One Grammar says a good deal about the parts of speech, but nothing about the analysis of sentences. Another says much about the analysis of sentences, but is almost silent about syntax and the government of words. Another goes upon the plan of being exhaustive, but puts too much matter into too small a compass.

The *practical* aim of this Grammar is shewn by the large number of examples to be worked out by the students. In this respect the method which has been followed might be compared with what is seen in books on Arithmetic or Geometry, in which not only are rules and principles laid down for guidance, but numerous examples are appended to each rule for practice. The practice here enforced of working out examples in Grammar is a step towards composition,—probably the only step which at this early stage an Indian student can be expected to take with any hope of success.

As to whether the treatment has been *explanatory* or not those who use the book will be best able to decide. The plan of compressing a manual of Grammar into the smallest possible space, leaving little or no room for explanation or illustration, has not been found to answer. Rules thus given are conveniently short, if the chief aim of the student is to learn them by heart;

but they are seldom understood, nor is their practical application properly mastered. In the classical languages, where the case-endings and verb-endings show at a glance in what relation a word stands to the rest of the sentence, further explanation on this point is scarcely needed; but in the English language, where almost all such inflections have been lost, the relation of one word to another is almost entirely a matter of common sense; and hence we must appeal to the reason and intelligence of a student, if we wish him to derive any profit from the study of English Grammar.

This brings me lastly to make a few remarks as to the manner in which this book (according to the Author's own views and intentions) should be used and taught. It should *not* be used merely or even chiefly as a book of reference. It should be taught in class like any other class book, just as Geometry or Arithmetic or even a Persian or English Reader is taught. Let it be read out by the students in class, each student taking his turn: let the teacher explain each point as it occurs, and take care that the class as a whole has understood what has been read: let the students work out the examples before the teacher and before each other, each taking an example in turn. Much that is contained in the book will be found very simple and easy, especially to those students, who in an earlier stage of their school-career have mastered the Grammar lessons occurring in the Anglo-Oriental series of English Readers, all of which are reproduced in the present volume. But there are other parts which are not so simple; and the teacher must take care that the student dwells upon these with sufficient care and attention, making the ground sure as he proceeds.

Of the books published in England, the Author has been chiefly guided by Bain's English Grammar, the Grammars by Mr. Mason, the works by Dr. Morris, and those by Dr. Abbott. His acknowledgments are also due to certain books published in this country and written by gentlemen who have had experience in Indian education, especially to MacMordie's *Studies in English*, Rowe and Webb's *Hints on the Study of English*, and Sheppard's *Matriculation Manual*.

NAINI TAL; *1st July 1892.* — J. C. NESFIELD, M. A.

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CHAPTER I.

THE PARTS OF SPEECH: GENERAL DEFINITIONS.

THE different kinds of words are called Parts of Speech. They are eight in number :—

1. Nouns.	5. Adverbs.
2. Verbs.	6. Prepositions.
3. Pronouns.	7. Conjunctions.
4. Adjectives.	8. Interjections.

1. **A Noun** is the name of some thing or person :—

Rám saw a *snake* in the *garden*.

Here *Rám* is the name of a person; *snake* is the name of a thing; and *garden* is the name of a thing. So *Rám*, *snake*, and *garden* are all nouns.

N. B.—Under "thing" we include not only individual objects, but places, cities, countries, and collective groups, as "flock." Thus *garden* in the above example is the name of a place.

2. **A Verb** is a word by means of which we can say something about a thing or person :—

Ten men *fell* from the top of a house.

Here by means of the word *fell* we say something about ten men, namely, that they fell from the top of a house. So *fell* is a verb.

N. B.—There are four kinds of things that we are able to say by means of verbs :—

(*a.*) What a thing or person *is*, *seems*, or *becomes*; as "ripe fruit *is* (or *seems*, or *becomes*) fit for food."

(*b.*) What action a thing or person *does*; as, "Rám *killed* a snake."

(*c.*) What action *is done to* a thing or person; as, "Ten men *were killed* by the fall of a house."

(*d.*) In what *state* a thing or person is; as, "The boy *sleeps*," "the boy *feels* a pain in his ear."

3. A **Pronoun** is a word used instead of a Noun :—

I told him, that the snake which *he* saw in the garden, would do *him* no harm, if *he* let *it* go *its own* way.

Here *I* is used for the speaker; *he* and *him* are used for "Rám"; *which, it,* and *its own* are used for "snake." So all these words are Pronouns.

4. An **Adjective** qualifies, (that is, adds something to the meaning of,) a Noun or Pronoun.

A *strong* man killed a *fierce* tiger.

Here *strong* shows the quality of the man, and *fierce* shows that of the tiger. So *strong* and *fierce* are both Adjectives.

5. An **Adverb** qualifies a Verb, Adjective, or other Adverb :—

An *almost* black snake crept *very quickly* through the grass.

Here *almost* qualifies the Adjective "black;" *quickly* qualifies the Verb "crept;" and *very* qualifies the Adverb "quickly." So all these words are Adverbs.

6. A **Preposition** is a word placed before a Noun or Pronoun, to show in what relation the thing named stands to some other thing :—

I place my hand *on* this table.

Here if you leave out the word *on*, and say "I place my hand this table," there is no sense: for you do not say whether you place it *on* the table, or *under* the table, or *above* the table. In fact the relation between the hand and the table is not known, and cannot be known, until some Preposition has been inserted to show what the relation is.

7. A **Conjunction** joins one word to another word, or one sentence to another sentence :—

Rám *and* his brother reached the house, *before* our friend saw us.

Here the Noun "brother" is joined to the Noun "Rám" by the Conjunction *and*; and the second sentence "our friend saw us" is joined to the first "Rám and his brother reached the house" by the Conjunction *before*.

8. **An Interjection** is a word thrown into a sentence to express some feeling of the mind :—

Hurrah! I have found my watch. *Oh!* how foolish I was to lose it!

Here *hurrah!* expresses the feeling of joy; and *oh!* expresses the feeling of surprise.

N. B.—Sometimes the same word, as will be seen hereafter, can be in two Parts of Speech and not merely in one. Of this doubleness there are two examples, which are of very common occurrence :—

(*a.*) A Participle is a Verb and Adjective combined; as, "*Having caught* the thief, he sent him to jail." Here "*having caught*" is a Verb, because it governs the object "thief," and an Adjective, because it qualifies the Pronoun "he." Hence Participles can be very properly called "Verbal Adjectives."

(*b.*) A Gerund is a Verb and Noun combined; as, "I am tired of *reading* this book." Here *reading* is a Verb, because it governs the object "book," and a Noun, because it is governed by the Preposition "of." Hence Gerunds can be very properly called "Verbal Nouns."

CHAPTER II.—NOUNS.

§ 1.—THE KINDS OF NOUNS.

1. NOUNS are of five different kinds: (1) Proper, (2) Common, (3) Collective, (4) Material, (5) Abstract.

PROPER NOUNS.

2. **A Proper Noun** denotes *one particular* thing as distinct from every other thing.

The thing denoted by a Proper Noun may be of various kinds, as for example :—

(*a.*) Some particular person; as *James*, *Gopal*, *Hasain*, *Queen Victoria*.

(*b.*) Some particular book; as the *Bible*, the *New Testament* the *Rámáyan*, *Gúlistán*, etc.

(*c.*) **Some particular city, town, village, or building; as** *Lucknow* **(city),** *Hoogly* **(town),** *Táj Mahál* **(building).**

(*d.*) **Some particular country, river, mountain, range of mountains, cape, gulf, island, etc.; as** *India* **(country),** *Ganges* **(river),** *Mount Abu, Himálaya* **(range of mountains),** *Cape Comorin, Gulf of Cambay, Ceylon* **(island).**

N. B.—(1.) The writing of a Proper Noun should be commenced with a capital letter.

(2.) A word or phrase is sometimes added to a Proper Noun to prevent ambiguity of reference. Thus we say, "Alexander *the Great*," or "*St.* Paul," or "Boston *in America*," to show which Alexander or which Paul or which Boston is meant: for many different persons or places might be called by these names.

COMMON NOUNS.

3. **A Common Noun** is so called, because it denotes no one thing in particular, but is *common to any and every thing of the same kind*; as "man," "book," "country."

Thus, *man* does not point out any particular man, such as James, but can be used for any and every man. *Book* does not point out any particular book, such as the New Testament, but can be used for any and every book. *Country* does not point out any particular country, such as India, but can be used for any and every country in any part of the world.

4. **A Proper Noun** is said to be "*used as a Common Noun*," and has in fact become a Common Noun, when it denotes, (*a*) some rank or office, or (*b*) some class of things or persons:—

(*a*) Such words as *Cæsar, Caliph, Sultan, Khedive, Czar*, &c., are often used as Common Nouns: thus we can speak of "the twelve Cæsars," "the first four Caliphs," "the Sultan of Turkey," "the Khedive of Egypt," "the Czar of Russia." All these words are titles, which may belong to many different individuals, and are meant to indicate some rank or office.

(*b*). A Proper Noun when it denotes a class of things or persons, is used in a descriptive and general sense. "A *Daniel* come to judgment"; that is, a man as wise as Daniel. "He is *the Newton* of the age"; that is, the greatest astronomer of the age. "He is the *Nestor* of his service"; that is, the oldest man of his service. Such words should be parsed as "Proper Nouns used as Common Nouns."

COLLECTIVE NOUNS.

5. **A Col-lec′-tive Noun**, denotes a *group*, *collection*, or *multitude*, considered as one complete whole.

For instance there may be *many sheep* in a field, but only *one flock*. Here "sheep" is a Common Noun, because it may stand for any and every sheep; but "flock" is a Collective Noun, because it stands for all the sheep at once in that field, and not for any one sheep taken separately.

In the same way there may be *many students* reading the same book under the same teacher, but all these students taken together make up only *one class*. "Student" is a Common Noun, because it may stand for any and every boy or girl in the class. But "class" is a Collective Noun, because, when we speak of a class, we do not think of this student or that student separately, but of all the students at once.

6. Every Collective Noun is also a kind of Common Noun.

Thus the term "flock" may stand for many different flocks (or groups of sheep); "class" for many different classes (or groups of students). Such nouns are Collective, so far as the *individual* things or persons are concerned, but Common, so far as the groups are concerned.

Human Groups.

Household } men, women, and
Family. } children of the same house.
Tribe, union of families.
Caste, union of families.
Nation, people of a country.
Class, of students.
School, union of classes.
Gang, of thieves.
Gang, of labourers.
Band, of musicians
Choir, of singers.
Bench, of magistrates.
Jury, body of men sworn
Sect, men of the same creed
Club, men of the same pursuit.
Congress, senate, parliament, assembly of public men.
Crowd, throng, multitude, or **concourse,** of any men.
Company, of merchants.
Company, of soldiers.
Regiment, collected companies.
Cavalry, horse soldiers.
Troop, or **squadron,** of cavalry.
Infantry, foot soldiers.
Army, collected forces.
Fleet, collected ships.

Animal Groups.

Pack, of wolves, hounds.
Flight, of birds, locusts.
Brood, of chickens.
Swarm, of flies.
Hive, or **swarm,** of bees.
Nest, or **swarm,** of ants.
Herd, of cattle grazing.
Drove, of cattle on march.
Shoal, of fish.
Litter, of puppies.
Flock, of sheep, goats, geese.
Herd, of swine, horses, deer.
Yoke, pair of plough-oxen.

Groups of Natural Objects.

Cluster, of stars. [roses.
Bunch, of grapes, plantains,
Fall, of snow, rain, hail.
Shower, of rain.
Clump, a small group of trees.
Grove, } large group of trees.
Forest, }
Tuft, of grass, feathers, hair.
Mass, of clouds.
Range, or **chain,** of mountains.
Shrubbery, of shrubs and bushes.
Group, of islands. [mals.
The animal kingdom, all ani-
The vegetable kingdom, all vegetables.
The mineral kingdom, all minerals.

Groups of Artificial Objects.

Bundle, of cut grass.
Sheaf, of cut corn.
Nosegay, of cut flowers.
Faggot, of cut sticks.
Stack, of cut wood.
Orchard, of planted fruit trees.
Alphabet, a set of letters.
Library, of books.
Flight, of steps.
Abuse, words of reproach.
Suit, of clothes.
Bunch, of keys.
Quiver, of arrows. [etc.
Heap, or **pile,** of stones, mangoes,
Row, or **terrace,** of houses.
Village, small group of houses.
Town, larger group of houses.
City, largest group of houses.

Numeral Groups.

Pair, brace, couple, two things.
An eleven, set of cricketers.
Dozen, twelve things.
Gross, twelve dozen.
Score, twenty things.
A hundred, a thousand, a lac, a million, etc.

NOUNS OF MATERIAL.

A Noun of **Material** denotes the *matter* or *substance* of which things are made.

A cow eats *grass*. Seeds are sewn in *soil*, and not on *rock*. *Salt* is necessary to life. Fish live in *water*. We cannot live without *air*. All things exist in *space*. *Fire* burns. That box is made of *iron*, and not of *tin*. They had *fish* for dinner. We shall dine on *wheat* to-day. *Milk* is a better drink than *wine*. Some men never eat *flesh*. We can write with *ink* or with *chalk*. A blackboard is made of *wood*. Most men are fond of *bread*. *Air* is lighter than *water*. *Water* is heavier than *oil*. *Coal* and *wood* are the best kinds of *fuel*. *Timber* is softer than *stone*. Most men will eat *mutton*, but some will not eat *beef*. *Silver* is not so hard as *gold*. Some men like *tea* better than *coffee*. *Wool* is warmer than *cotton*. *Language* is made up of words.

8. The same word can be a Material Noun or a Common Noun according to the sense.

Fish live in the water. *Fish* is good food.

In the first sentence the Noun denotes individual fish or fishes, and is therefore a Common Noun. In the second it denotes the matter of which the bodies of fish are made, and is therefore a Material Noun.

	Common.	*Material.*
Mango.	The name of a tree.	The fruit called mango.
Lamb.	The young of a sheep.	The flesh of a lamb.
Land.	A country or tract of land.	Earth as distinct from water.
Potato.	The name of a plant.	The food called potato.
Cork.	The name of a tree.	The bark of the tree used for stopping bottles.
Stone.	A gem or precious stone.	Rocky matter of any kind.
Sal.	The name of a tree.	The timber of the sal tree.
Wood.	A forest or grove.	The matter of which trees are made.
Slate.	A slate used in school.	Slate-rock, out of which slates are made.

Sometimes there is one word for a Common Noun and another for the corresponding Material Noun.

Common.	*Material.*
Hog, pig, swine.	Ham, bacon, pork.
Ox.	Beef.
Calf.	Veal.
Deer, Stag.	Venison.
Sheep.	Mutton.
Poppy, the plant.	Opium, the juice.
Barley, the plant.	Beer, the fermented juice of barley.
Tree.	Timber.
Olive.	Oil, the juice of the olive.
Cow.	Vaccine, a juice from the cow.
Vine, the grape-plant.	Wine, the fermented juice of grapes.
Palm-tree.	Toddy, the fermented juice of the palm.
Loaf, or loaves.	Bread, wheat.
Apple, apples.	Cider, the fermented juice of apples.

ABSTRACT NOUNS.

9. AN **Abstract Noun** denotes some *quality*, *state*, or *action*, apart from the thing or doer.

The four kinds of nouns already named all relate to *objects*, that is, to things which can be seen, touched, heard, smelt, or tasted; and all such nouns are called **Concrete Nouns.** But an Abstract Noun relates to things which cannot be seen or touched, etc., and which are thought of *apart from* any object or objects.

For example—We know that a stone is hard. We also know that iron is hard. We also know that a brick is hard. We can therefore speak of hardness apart from stone, or iron, or brick, or any other object having the same quality. "Abstract" means "drawn off" or "apart from" the object. Hence *hardness* is an Abstract Noun; while a *stone* or *brick* or *piece of iron* is a Concrete Noun.

The things denoted by an Abstract Noun may be of various kinds, as:—

(*a.*) Some quality of men or things, as *goodness* (men,) *hardness* (objects,) *color* (men or things.)

(*b*) Some state of mind or body; as *fever*, *weariness*, *good health*, *youth*, *old age*, *hunger*, *anger*, *love*, *hatred*, *heat*, *cold*, *sleep*, *disease*, *joy*, *happiness*.

(*c.*) Some kind of time or space; as, *childhood, youth,* (time,) *height, shortness, depth* (space.)

(*d.*) Some kind of art or science; as, *grammar, arithmetic, music, geography, cricket, poetry.*

(*e.*) Some kind of action or some posture of the body; as, *motion, movement, walk* or *walking, seat* or *sitting, journey, flight, march, speech, revenge, work* or *working, punishment.*

10. The same word may be an Abstract Noun or a Common Noun, according to the sense.

When an Abstract Noun is "*used as a Common or Concrete Noun,*" it may denote (*a*) the *person* possessing the quality, or (*b*) the *thing* to which the action, state, or quality refers:—

Justice.	1. The quality of being just ...	*Abstract.*
	2. A judge, or one who administers justice,	*Concrete.*
Beauty.	1. The quality or state of being beautiful,	*Abstract.*
	2. A person possessing beauty ...	*Concrete.*
Genius.	1. Inborn ability	*Abstract.*
	2. A person possessing genius ...	*Concrete.*
Authority.	1. The power or right to command ...	*Abstract.*
	2. A person possessing authority. ...	*Concrete.*
Government.	1. The power or right to govern ...	*Abstract.*
	2. Those who exercise government ...	*Concrete.*
Counsel.	1. Advice from a barrister ...	*Abstract.*
	2. The man who gives advice or counsel,	*Concrete.*
Majesty.	1. The quality of being great ...	*Abstract.*
	2. The King or Queen possessing majesty,	*Concrete.*
Nobility.	1 The quality of being noble ...	*Abstract.*
	2. The men belonging to the class of nobles	*Concrete.*
Witness.	1. Evidence or testimony	*Abstract.*
	2. One who gives the evidence or bears the testimony	*Concrete.*

EXAMPLES OF (*b.*)

Judgment.	1. The act or quality of judging ...	*Abstract.*
	2. The judgment given by the judge ...	*Concrete.*
Seat.	1. The act of sitting	*Abstract.*
	2. The chair or thing you sit on ...	*Concrete.*
Sight.	1. The act or faculty of seeing ...	*Abstract.*
	2. The thing seen: "a fine sight" ...	*Concrete.*
Truth.	1. The quality of being true ...	*Abstract.*
	2. The thing which is true; the fact ...	*Concrete.*
Speech.	1. The faculty of speaking	*Abstract.*
	2. The speech delivered; the word spoken,	*Concrete.*
Wonder.	1. The feeling of wonder or surprise ...	*Abstract.*
	2. The wonderful event or object ...	*Concrete.*

EXAMPLES OF (b).—(Contd.)

Action.	1. The state or act of doing something,	*Abstract.*
	2. The thing done; the deed itself ...	*Concrete.*
Building.	1. The act of building	*Abstract.*
	2. The thing built	*Concrete.*
Service.	1. The act of serving or condition of a servant	*Abstract.*
	2. The work done by a servant ...	*Concrete.*
Kindness.	1. The quality of being kind ...	*Abstract.*
	2. The act of kindness; the kind thing done	*Concrete.*
Folly.	1. The quality of being foolish ...	*Abstract.*
	2. An act of folly; the foolish thing done,	*Concrete.*
Nourishment.	1. The act or quality of nourishing ...	*Abstract.*
	2. The food which nourishes ...	*Concrete.*

HOW ABSTRACT NOUNS ARE FORMED.

11. ABSTRACT Nouns can be formed from Adjectives, or from Common Nouns, or from Verbs.

(a)—ABSTRACT NOUNS FORMED FROM ADJECTIVES.

Adjective.	*Abstract Noun.*	*Adjective.*	*Abstract Noun.*
Wise	wisdom.	Just	justice.
Poor	poverty.	Great	greatness.
High	height.	Hot	heat.
Short	shortness.	Sleepy	sleepiness.
Honest	honesty.	Bitter	bitterness.
Dark	darkness.	Wide	width.
Long	longtitude.	Sole	solitude.
Brave	bravery.	Broad	breadth.
Prudent	prudence.	Deep	depth.
Sweet.	sweetness.	True	truth.
Young	youth.	Cold	coldness.
Proud	pride.	Humble	humility.

(c.)—ABSTRACT NOUNS FORMED FROM COMMON NOUNS.

Common Noun.	*Abstract Noun.*	*Common Noun.*	*Abstract Noun.*
Man	manhood.	Bond	bondage.
Child	childhood.	Hero	heroism.
Friend	friendship.	Thief	theft.
Boy	boyhood.	Mother	maternity.
Captain	captaincy.	Rascal	rascality.
Priest	priesthood.	Rogue	roguery.
Agent	agency.	Slave	slavery.
Regent	regency.	Infant	infancy.
King...	kingship.	Owner	ownership.

(b.)—ABSTRACT NOUNS FORMED FROM VERBS.

Verb.	*Abstract.*	*Verb.*	*Abstract Noun.*
Serve	service.	Advise	advice.
Live	life.	Defend	defence.
Hate	hatred.	Judge	judgment.
Obey	obedience.	Conceal	concealment.
Choose	choice. [ment	Seize	seizure
Move	motion,move-	Laugh	laughter.
See	sight.	Free	freedom.
Relieve	relief.	Expect	expectation.
Believe	belief.	Protect	protection.
Please	pleasure.	Think	thought.
Die	death.	Punish	punishment.
Fly	flight	Try	trial.
Sit	seat	Revenge	vengeance.
Speak	speech	Utter	utterance.

(d.)—ABSTRACT NOUNS OF THE SAME FORM AS VERBS

Verb.	*Abstract Noun.*	*Verb.*	*Abstract Noun.*
Fear	fear.	Walk	walk.
Hope	hope.	Run	run.
Desire	desire.	Step	step.
Regret	regret.	Cry	cry.
Order	order	Sob	sob.
Move	move.	Laugh	laugh.
Rise	rise.	Taste	taste.
Fall	fall.	Ride	ride.
Stay	stay.	Touch	touch.
Stop	stop.	Love	love.
March	march.	Journey	journey.

(e.)—VERBAL NOUNS AND INFINITIVES.

Verb.	*Abstract Noun.*	*Verbal Noun.*	*Infinitive.*
Serve	service.	serving	to serve.
Laugh	laughter.	laughing	to laugh.
Sit	seat.	sitting	to sit.
Walk	walk.	walking	to walk.
Work	work.	working	to work.
Ride	ride.	riding	to ride.

(**A Verbal Noun** is so called, because it is both a Noun and a Verb.) An **In-fin'-i-tive** is a part of the Verb, which has the *force* of an Abstract Noun, although it is not a Noun in *form*: it is always preceded by *to*.

There is no difference in meaning between an Abstract Noun, a Verbal Noun, and an Infinitive.

> *Work* is good for the health, *Abstract Noun.*
> *Working* is good for the health, *Verbal Noun.*
> *To work* is good for the health, *Infinitive.*

These three words, (the Abstract Noun, the Verbal Noun, and the Infinitive,) all mean exactly the same thing. The difference is only one of form, not of sense or meaning.

Examples for Practice.

Point out the nouns in the following sentences, and say to which of the 5 classes each noun belongs :—

> Alexander the Great, king of Macedon, was conqueror of Persia. A man ignorant of the arts of reading, writing, and ciphering is, in point of knowledge, more like a child than a man The proper study of mankind is man. Cows are as fond of grass, as men are of milk, or bears of honey. Health is one of the greatest blessings, that a man or woman can hope to enjoy in this bodily existence. The Czar of Russia, although he is lord of the eastern half of Europe and the northern half of Asia, besides being master of a huge army and a large fleet, cannot live in peace and safety with his own subjects, and cannot leave his own palace without fear. Arjun was the bravest of the Pandavas. Kalidás was the Homer of India ; but his fame is not so widely known throughout the world as the fame of Homer is. Almost every Hindu belongs to some caste ; but the bondage of rules founded on caste is in a state of decline. A shower of rain does not give so much trouble to a traveller as a fall of snow. The eleven of our school defeated an eleven selected from among the best cricketers of the town. Most kinds of food are not conducive to health, unless they are mixed with a certain amount of salt. The love of money is the root of all evil ; but by a proper use of money men can do much good. He has done me so many kindnesses, that I shall always remember his name with gratitude. Cleon is a justice by rank and office, but he is not a genius in the science of law. Speech is one of the highest faculties with which man is endowed; but speech without goodness and purity may prove an evil rather than a blessing to its possessor. Language is a form of matter consisting of words, and words are displayed either in sounds or in letters.

§ 2.—GENDER OF NOUNS.

1. THAT difference in the form of a noun, which shows whether we are speaking of a male or female, is called **Gender.**

2. The names of males are said to be of the **Masculine** Gender, as *man*; the names of females are said to be of the **Feminine** Gender, as *woman*.

Things without life cannot be either male or female; hence the names of such things are said to be of the **Neuter** (that is, neither) Gender; as *house, stone.*

A name, which can be given either to a male or female, is said to be of the **Common** Gender; as *parent* (father or mother); *child* (girl or boy.)

All Material and Abstract Nouns must be Neuter, since they denote things without life. All Collective Nouns must be Neuter, since they denote groups, and groups as such have no life. The only kinds of nouns which can be Masculine, Feminine, or Common are Proper Nouns and Common Nouns, since these only can denote things possessing life.

3. There are three different ways by which a Masculine Noun is distinguished from a Feminine:—(1) by a change of ending; (2) by a change of word; (3) by placing a word before or after.

1.—BY A CHANGE OF ENDING.

Masculine.	*Feminine.*	*Masculine.*	*Feminine.*
Actor	actress.	Master	mistress.
Author	authoress.	Murderer	murderess.
Duke	duchess.	Jew	Jewess.
Emperor	empress.	Patron	patroness.
Giant	giantess.	Poet	poetess (or poet)
God	goddess.	Priest	priestess.
Heir	heiress.	Prince	princess.
Host	hostess.	Prophet	prophetess.
Hunter	huntress.	Shepherd	shepherdess.
Lad	lass.	Songster	songstress.
Lion	lioness.	Tiger	tigress.
Hero	heroine.	Tutor	[illegible]
Negro	negress.	Widower	widow.
Beau	belle.	Wizard	witch.

2.—BY A CHANGE OF WORD

Masculine	*Feminine*	*Masculine*	*Feminine*
Boar	sow	Horse	mare.
Boy	girl	Sire (father of colt)	dam (mother of colt)
Brother	sister	Husband	wife
Bull	cow	King	queen
Bullock (or steer)	heifer	Lord	lady
Cock	hen	Man	woman
Buck	doe	Nephew	niece
Dog	bitch (or slut)	Ram (or wether)	ewe
Drake	duck	Sir	madam
Earl	countess.	Son	daughter
Father	mother	Stag	hind.
Friar (or monk)	nun	Uncle	aunt
Gentleman	lady	Wizard	witch
Sloven	slut	Gander	goose
Bachelor	maid	Hart	roe
Milter (fish)	spawner		

3.—BY PLACING A WORD BEFORE OR AFTER

Masculine	*Feminine*	*Masculine*	*Feminine*
He-goat	she-goat	Bride groom	bride
Land-lord	land lady	Great uncle	great aunt
Man servant	maid servant	Pea-cock	pea hen
Grand father	grand mother	Cock sparrow	hen sparrow

4.—EXAMPLES OF NOUNS IN THE COMMON GENDER

Parent—father or mother.
Relation—male or female relation
Friend—enemy—male or female friend or enemy
Cousin—male or female cousin
Bird—cock or hen
Fowl—cock or hen
Child—boy or girl, son or daughter
Deer—stag or hind
Fallow deer—buck or doe
Baby—male or female child
Infant—male or female infant
Servant—man servant or maid-servant.

4.—EXAMPLES OF NOUNS.—(*Continued.*)

Monarch—king or queen, emperor or empress.
Person—man or woman.
Pupil—boy student or girl student.
Orphan—boy or girl without parents.
Pig—boar or sow
Sheep—ram or ewe
Elephant—male or female elephant
Cat—male or female cat.
Rat—male or female rat
Mouse—male or female mouse
Fox—male or female fox.
Cattle—cows alone, or cows and bull mixed.
Swine—sows alone, or sows and boar mixed.
Foal—colt or filly
Calf—bullock or heifer

4. Inanimate objects are sometimes spoken of as if they were persons. They are then said to be "personified." Such nouns are regarded as male or female, and admit therefore of being Masculine or Feminine.

A noun, when it is thus personified, is commenced with a capital letter.

As a general rule things remarkable for strength, greatness, superiority, &c., are regarded as males; as the Sun, June, Summer, Winter, the Dawn, the Morn, Death, War, Majesty. States or qualities expressed by Abstract Nouns, and whatever is supposed to possess beauty, fertility, grace, inferiority, &c., are regarded as females, as the Earth, Spring, Hope, Virtue, Truth, Justice, Mercy, Charity, Peace, Humility, Jealousy, Pride, Fame, Modesty, Liberty, Flattery, &c. The Moon is regarded as Feminine, because she is an inferior luminary to her supposed brother, the Sun, from whom her rays are borrowed.

There is nothing in the *form* of these personifications which can show the genders. The gender is disclosed by the pronouns *he* or *she*, which may be used instead of them.

A ship, though it is not commenced with a capital letter, is always spoken of as *she*. The same is often said of a railway-train.

Point out the genders of the nouns in the following sentences :—

> A friend called at our house last night. Did you see the elephant that came into the town this morning? Between a cow and a dog there seems to be a natural enmity. The queen of England is monarch of a vast empire. A herd of deer adds much to the beauty of a park. How many sheep and how many goats are there in your flock? There are certain animals, such as cats, jackals, foxes, owls, and tigers, which see things much more clearly in the night than men can. The heroine of that story was a poor lass, who was left an orphan at six years of age. The cattle are grazing on the side of the hills, and the cowherd is seated on the grass beside them. The bridegroom brought the bride to his house a few days ago. A peacock is one of the most beautiful of birds, and a lion is one of the stateliest of amimals.

Give the feminine gender of each of the following nouns :—

> Landlord, ram, bull, boar, lad, sloven, gander, drake, milter, hart, sire, heir, wizard, widower, master, tiger, uncle, king, horse, poet, hero, negro, cock, bachelor, earl, boy, he-goat, bridegroom, man-servant.

§ 3.—CASE.

1. THAT change in the form of a noun, which shows in what relation the noun stands to some other word, is called its **Case.**

2. There are said to be three Cases in English,—the *Nominative*, *Possessive*, and *Objective*.

But the Possessive is the only case that is *now* indicated by a case-ending or *change of form*. The other cases have lost their case-endings, and are indicated only by grammatical relation, or by the help of prepositions.

3. When a noun is used as the *subject* to a verb or for the sake of *address*, it is said to be in the **Nominative Case.**

> Rain falls ... ... (*Subject.*)
> Are you coming, my friend? ... ... (*Address.*)

4. When a noun is the *object* to a verb or to a Preposition, it is said to be in the **Objective Case.**

> The man killed a *rat* ... ... (*Object to Verb.*)
> The earth is moistened by *rain* ... (*Obj. to Prep.*)

5. The **Possessive** case is so called, because it denotes the *possessor* or owner. It is formed by adding 's (which is called *a-pos'-tro-phe' s*) to the noun; as—

Singular—man's.
Plural—men's.

But if the plural form of the noun ends in *s*, or if the singular ends in *s* or *x* or in *ce* having the sound of *s*, the Possessive Case is formed by simply adding the apostrophe.

	Nom.	*Poss.*	
Singular.	Ox	ox'	"the ox' head."
	James	James'	"James' book"
	Jewess	Jewess'	"the Jewess' face."
	Conscience	conscience'	"conscience' sake."
Plural	Horses	horses'	"the horses' heads."

N B—The old and now obsolete inflection for the Possessive case was *es*. When the *e* was omitted, as it now always is in modern English, the absence of the *e* was indicated by the comma or apostrophe; as *moon, moones, moon's*

6. (The Possessive case-ending is for the most part limited to *persons, living animals, and personified things. It is not used for inanimate things.*)

Thus we can say "the *rat's* tail, the *horse's* back; the *boy's* book; the *ox'* tail, the *barrister's* fee; the *serpent's* tongue, the *elephant's* trunk, *Fortune's* favourite, *Sorrow's* tears; etc."

But we cannot say "the *house's* roof; the *town's* street; the *garden's* fruit, *Bengal's* sea-port; human *life's* brevity;" etc.

N. B.—Even if the noun denotes some person or living animal, the Possessive case-ending should be avoided, whenever the Possessive noun is the Antecedent to some Relative Pronoun following; as,

We picked up the *man's* body who was slain—(*incorrect.*)
We picked up the body *of the man* who was slain—(*correct*)

Why is it here better to use the preposition *of* than the case-ending? Because it brings the Antecedent *as close as possible* to its Relative Pronoun. As a standing rule, the Relative and Antecedent should not be separated, or, if they are separated at all, by as few words as possible.

7. (There are two kinds of nouns, which are often used

in the Possessive case, although they do not denote either living beings or personified things:—

(*a.*) Nouns denoting time or space:—

Time. A *day's* journey; a *month's* holiday; three *weeks'* leave; a *year's* absence; at six *months'* sight; three *days'* grace.

Space. A *boat's* length; a *hand's* breadth; a *hair's* breadth; a *razor's* edge; a *stone's* throw; a *needle's* point.

(*b.*) Nouns signifying certain dignified objects, which we are accustomed to speak of as if they were living persons:—

The *court's* decree; the *sun's* rays; the *moon's* crescent; *nature's* works; the *earth's* creatures; the *soul's* delight; *heaven's* will; the *law's* delays; *truth's* triumph; the *mind's* eye; *reason's* ear, etc.

8. **A Collective Noun,** even when it denotes a collection of persons or living animals, is regarded as inanimates and hence it cannot be used in the Possessive case.

Thus we cannot say:—"The *flock's* shepherd; the *multitude's* shout; the *school's* teachers."

9. When we speak of a person's house, or place of business, the noun denoting house, &c., is frequently left out; as,

This book can be bought from the *publisher's*.
They have returned from the *judge's*.
I shall sleep to-night at my *uncle's*.
Bring me that tool from the *carpenter's*.

But if a pronoun is put for a noun, the noun denoting "house" must be expressed, and not left out:—

Thus we cannot say "They have returned from *his*." It is necessary to add the word "house" or "shop," &c. "They have returned from *his house*."

10. **The Double Possessive.**—This occurs in such phrases as "that fine poem *of Homer's*." It is made by putting the preposition "of" before the Possessive case.

This is not a suitable expression, although it is not uncommon. We must explain it by saying, "that fine poem of

Homer's (poems), where the noun *poems* is understood after the Possessive case.

This double Possessive is more common with pronouns than with nouns; as, "that fine horse *of yours*," "this house *of ours*," "that smile *of hers*," "that book of *his*."

PARSING MODEL.

(*a*).—"Boys learn grammar in the class."

Boys.—Common noun, plural number, masculine gender, nominative case, subject to the verb "learn."

Learn.—Verb.

Grammar.—Abstract noun, singular number, neuter gender, objective case, after the verb "learn."

In.—Preposition, having "class" for its object.

The.—Adjective qualifying "class."

Class.—Collective noun, singular number, neuter gender, objective case, after the preposition "in."

(*b.*) Cow's milk is often drunk by young children.

Cow's.—Common noun, singular number, feminine gender, possessive case.

Milk.—Noun of Material, singular number, neuter gender, nominative case, subject to the verb "is drunk."

Often.—Adverb of time, qualifying the verb "is drunk."

Is drunk.—Verb.

By.—Preposition, having "children" for its object.

Young.—Adjective qualifying "children."

Children.—Common noun, plural number, common gender, objective case, after the preposition "by."

(c.) The flock of sheep is eating grass in James' orchard.

The.—Adjective qualifying "flock."

Flock.—Collective noun, singular number, neuter gender, nominative case, subject to the verb "is eating."

Of.—Preposition, having "sheep" for its object.

Sheep.—Common noun, plural number, common gender, objective case, after the preposition "of."

Is eating.—Verb.

Grass.—Noun of Material, singular number, neuter gender, objective case, after the verb "is eating."

In.—Preposition, having "orchard" for its object.

James'.—Proper noun, singular number, masculine gender, possessive case.

Orchard.—Collective noun, singular number, neuter gender, objective case, after the preposition "in."

§ 4.—NUMBER.

1. WHEN a noun denotes *one* thing, it is said to be in the **Singular** number. When it denotes *more than one*, it is in the **Plural** number.

2. Some nouns, from the kinds of meaning contained in them, cannot have a plural :—

(*a.*) A Proper noun has no Plural, because it denotes *one particular* thing or person as distinct from every other thing or person ; as, *Calcutta.* (We cannot say *Calcuttas.*)

N. B.—Whenever a Proper Noun is put into the Plural number, it is no longer a Proper noun, but has become or "is used as" a Common Noun signifying *different things or persons* of the same stamp :—

Egypt is a country in Africa. ... ... (*Proper.*)
Many *Egypts* (=countries as large as Egypt,) could be contained in India. ... ... (*Common.*)

Kálidás was a poet of India. ... ... (*Proper.*)
India did not produce two *Kálidáses* (=two poets equal to Kálidás.) ... ... (*Common.*)

(*b.*) A Material Noun has no Plural, because it simply denotes *matter* of some kind, without reference to the number of individual things in which that kind of matter is found ; as *gold.* (We cannot say *golds.*)

N. B.—Whenever a Material Noun is put into the Plural number, it is no longer a Material Noun, but has become or "is used as" a Common Noun signifying *different kinds or different examples* of the matter named :—

Tea is a pleasant drink ... ... (*Material.*)
The best *teas* (=tea-plants) grow in India. ... (*Common.*)

All men should drink *water* ... ... (*Material.*)
The *waters* (=streams or rivers) of Babylon ... (*Common.*)

(c). An Abstract Noun has no Plural, because it denotes some *quality* apart from the different objects possessing that quality; as, *hardness, sleep*. (We cannot say *hardnesses, sleeps.*)

N. B.—Whenever an Abstract Noun is put into the Plural, it is no longer an Abstract Noun, but has become or "is used as" a Common Noun signifying *different acts, kinds, or examples* of the quality named:—

Kindness is part of his character ...	... (*Abstract.*)
He did many *kindnesses* (=act of kindness) ...	(*Common.*)
He is a lover of *virtue* ...	... (*Abstract.*)
He has many *virtues* (=kinds of virtue)	... (*Common.*)

3. The only kinds of nouns, then, which (strictly speaking) can have a Plural are Common nouns and Collective Nouns. But as "every Collective Noun is also a Common Noun," (See § I, para. 6.) it is right to say that only Common Nouns can be put into the Plural:—

Hands, the plural of *hand*	... (*Common Noun.*)
Flocks, the plural of *flock*	... (*Common Collective Noun.*)

HOW PLURALS ARE FORMED FROM SINGULARS.

4. The general rule for forming the Plural number of a noun is by adding *s* to the Singular; as,

Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
Hand	hands.	Garden	gardens.
Map	maps.	Star	stars.
House	houses.	Blow	blows.
Stone	stones.	Crack	cracks.

But if the noun ends in *s, x, sh,* or *ch*, the Plural is formed by adding *es* to the Singular; as,

Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
Glass	glass-es.	Gash	gash-es.
Hiss	hiss-es.	Brush	brush-es.
Moss	moss-es.	Bench	bench-es.
Tax	tax-es	Coach	coach-es.
Box	box-es.	Birch	birch-es.

5. If the noun ends in *y* and the *y* is preceded by a *consonant*, the Plural is formed by changing the *y* into *ies*:—

Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
Duty	duties.	Army	armies.
Fly	flies.	Lady	ladies.

But if the final *y* is preceded by a *vowel* (as in *ay*, *ey*, or *oy*,) the Plural is formed by simply adding *s* to the Singular in accordance with the general rule given in para. 4.) :—

Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
Day	days.	Monkey	monkeys.
Play	plays.	Chimney	chimneys.
Key	keys.	Toy	toys.
Journey	journeys.	Boy	boys.
Valley	valleys.	Joy	joys.

6. If the noun ends in *o*, and the *o* is preceded by a *consonant*, the Plural is generally formed by adding *es* to the Singular:—

Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
Cargo	cargoes.	Mango	mangoes.
Hero	heroes	Potato	potatoes.
Buffalo	buffaloes.	Echo	echoes.
Motto	mottoes	Negro.	negroes.
Volcano	volcanoes.	Tomato	tomatoes.

But all words ending in *oo*, all words ending in *io*, or *yo*, and a few words ending in *o*, form the Plural in *s*, and not in *es*:—

Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
Bamboo	bamboos.	Grotto	grottos.
Cuckoo	cuckoos.	Canto	cantos.
Hindoo	Hindoos.	Halo	halos.
Kangaroo	kangaroos.	Quarto	quartos.
Folio	folios.	Memento	mementos.
Trio	trios.	Piano	pianos.
Portfolio	portfolios.	Proviso	provisos.
Embryo	embryos.	Tyro (or tiro)	tyros.

There are a few nouns ending in *o*, which form the Plural both in *s* and *es*:—

Singular.	*Plural.*
Calico	calicos or calicoes.
Musquito	musquitos or musquitoes.
Portico	porticos or porticoes.

7. If the noun ends in *f* or *fe*, the Plural is generally formed by changing *f* or *fe* into *ves* :—

Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
Loaf	loaves.	Thief	thieves.
Wife	wives.	Half	halves.
Wolf	wolves.	Myself	ourselves.
Knife	knives,	Shelf	shelves.
Life	lives.	Leaf	leaves.
Calf	calves.	Sheaf	sheaves.

But there are some nouns ending in *f*, which form the Plural by simply adding *s* (in accordance with the general rule given in para. 4) :—

Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
Reef	reefs.	Dwarf	dwarfs.
Chief	chiefs.	Turf	turfs.
Roof	roofs.	Gulf	gulfs.
Hoof	hoofs.	Cliff	cliffs.
Proof	proofs.	Grief	griefs.

There are three nouns ending in *fe*, which form the Plural by simply adding *s* :—

Safe—safes ; strife—strifes ; fife—fifes.

8. There are 7 or 8 nouns in common use, which form the Plural by a change in the middle of the word :—

Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
Man	men.	Tooth	teeth.
Woman	women.	Louse	lice.
Foot	feet.	Mouse	mice.
Goose	geese.	Dormouse	dormice.

9. There are 4 nouns which form the Plural in *en* or *ne* :—

Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
Ox	oxen.	Brother	brethren (or brothers.)
Child	children.	Cow	kine (or cows.)

10. A compound noun generally forms the Plural by adding *s* to the principal word :—

Singular.	*Plural.*
Father-in-law	fathers-in-law.
Son-in-law	sons-in-law.
Mother-in-law	mothers-in-law.
Daughter-in-law	daughters-in-law.

Singular.	*Plural.*
Step-son	step-sons.
Step-daughter	step-daughters.
Hanger-on	hangers-on.
Looker-on	lookers-on.
Passer-by	passers-by.
Maid-servant	maid-servants.
Foot-man	foot-men.
Washer-man	washer-men.
Knight-errant	knights-errant.
Coat-of-mail	coats-of-mail.
Court-martial	courts-martial.
Commander-in-chief	commanders-in-chief.

There are three Compound Nouns which take a double Plural :—

Singular.	*Plural.*
Man-servant	men-servants.
Woman-servant	women-servants.
Lord-justice	lords justices.

In a phrase like "Miss Brown," two different forms are used for the Plural. We may either say "the Miss Browns," or "the Misses Brown"

11. **Foreign Plurals.** These are Plurals which have been borrowed direct from foreign nouns. The following are among the nouns of this kind, that are most commonly met with :—

Singular.	*Plural.*
(Latin.)	
Addendum.	addenda.
Datum	data.
Dictum	dicta.
Effluvium	effluvia.
Erratum	errata.
Memorandum	memoranda.
Medium	media.
Stratum	strata
Alumnus	alumni.
Fungus	fungi.
Genius	genii.
Radius	radii.
Terminus	termini.
Formula	formulæ.
Genus	genera.
Stamen	stamina.
Axis	axes.
Index	indices.

Singular.	*Plural.*
(Greek)	
Analysis	analyses
Basis	bases.
Crisis	crises.
Hypothesis	hypotheses.
Oasis	oases.
Parenthesis	parentheses
Thesis	theses.
Phenomenon	phenomena.
Criterion	criteria.
(Italian.)	
Bandit	banditti.
(French.)	
Beau	beaux.
Bureau	bureaux.
(Hebrew.)	
Cherub	cherubim (or cherubs.)
Seraph	seraphim (or seraphs.)

Repeat and spell the Plural form of each of the following words :—

> Addendum ; seraph ; tooth ; echo ; bamboo ; valley ; duty ; play ; goose ; chief ; loaf ; looker on ; lord-justice ; erratum ; crisis ; criterion ; memento ; mouse ; buffalo ; map ; birch ; musquito ; maid-servant ; man-servant ; Miss Brown ; tooth ; strife ; oasis ; radius ; datum ; genus ; cuckoo ; lady ; monkey ; child ; step-son ; proof ; thief ; folio ; Hindoo ; mango ; washerman : foot, foot man ; knife ; wife ; dictum ; bandit ; beau ; stamen ; piano ; cow ; key ; fly ; box ; hero ; memorandum ; chimney ; step daughter ; motto ; joy.

PECULIAR USES OF SINGULARS AND PLURALS.

12. APART from the different *forms* of the Plural, (all of which have been described in paras. 4-11,) there are certain peculiarities in the *use* of Singular and Plural nouns which can be shown under the following headings :—

I.—Nouns which have the same form for the Plural as for the Singular :—

(*a*) *Names of Animals.*	(*b*) *Nouns of Number.*	(*c*) *Weight and Money.*	(*d*) *Miscellaneous.*
	Pair	Pound (weight)	Series.
Deer	Brace	Stone	Species.
Sheep	Couple	Hundredweight	Apparatus.
Fish, rarely fishes	Dozen	Pound (money)	Heathen.
	Score	Pice	

> This deer, these *deer*. That sheep, those *sheep*. That fish, those *fish* (rarely *fishes*.) This series of names, those *series*. That *species* of birds, those *species* of birds. Those *apparatus*. Those *heathen*. Two *pair* of boots. Nine *brace* of birds. Four *yoke* of oxen. Ten *dozen* books. Three *score* men. Twelve *pound* weight. He weighs ten *stone* and a half. That box weighs three *hundred-weight*. Four *pound* ten shillings (English money). Three *pice* (Indian money.)

N. B.—Some nouns, which take the Plural form at ordinary times, retain the Singular form when they are joined to Numeral Adjectives to express some specific quantity or number :—

> A ten-*rupee* note. A twelve-*pound*. A three-*foot* rule. An eight-*day* clock. A six-*year* old horse. A fortn*ight*, (which is a contraction of "fourteen nights.") Forty *head* of cattle Seven *fathom* deep.

II.—Nouns, which are not Plural in *form*, but are always used in a Plural *sense*

Cattle, "These cattle (cows, oxen, bullocks, &c,) are mine. To say *this cattle*, or *these cattles* is wrong.

Vermin, "*These* vermin (rats, mice, &c.,) do much injury to the fields." We cannot say *this vermin* or *these vermins*.

Swine, "*Those* swine must not be admitted into the garden." We cannot say *that swine* or *those swines*.

III.—Nouns which have no Singular form. These are for the most part names of things, which imply plurality or consist of more parts than one:—

(*a*.) Instruments or tools :—*arms* (in the sense of weapons) *bellows, fetters, pincers, nippers, scissors, tongs, shears, snuffers, tweezers*.

(*b*.) Articles of dress :—*breeches, drawers, pantaloons, trappings, trowsers, hose*.

(*c*). Kinds of disease :—*measles, mumps, staggers, small-pox* (originally spelt as *small-pocks*).

(*d*). Parts of the body :—*bowels, entrails, intestines, giblets, lights*.*

* The word "lungs" is generally included in this list ; but this is a mistake ; for we can correctly say "the right lung." or "the left lung." So the word is used in the Singular, and not only in the Plural.

(*e*). Miscellaneous :—

Ashes, grains of dust from burnt wood or coal.
Annals, public records.
Assets, property granted by will or claimed for debt.
Credentials, certificates to a man's credit.
Dregs, the sediment of any kind of liquid.
Embers, coal and ashes mixed.
Chattels, moveable goods or property.
Lees, the same as dregs.
Nuptials, ceremonies of marriage.
Obsequies, ceremonies of burial,
Shambles, butchers' shops in a line.
Statistics, figures and facts collected and arranged for some special purpose.
Victuals, various kinds of food.
Hustings, a platform for making a public speech.
Proceeds, the sums of money realized by a sale.
Thanks, words expressive of gratitude.
Tidings, news about some thing or person.

Downs, sloping banks of unwooded land.
Suds, water mixed with soap.
Tactics, a plan for gaining some object.
Ethics, the theory of the duties of life.
Wages, payment for work done.
Chaps, the upper and lower jaws.
Auspices, guidance, leadership.
Billiards, a game played with ivory balls.
Environs, the fields, houses, &c., surrounding a place.
Thews, the muscles of the body.
Contents, the things contained in something.

IV.—Nouns, which have one meaning in the Singular and another in the Plural :—

Singular.	*Plural.*
Advice, counsel.	**Advices**, information.
Beef, flesh of ox.	**Beeves**, cattle, bulls & cows.
Compass, range or extent.	**Compasses**, an instrument.
Good, benefit.	**Goods**, moveable property.
Iron, a metal.	**Irons**, fetters made of iron.
Physic, medicine.	**Physics**, natural science.
Return, coming back.	**Returns**, statistics.
Vesper, evening.	**Vespers**, evening prayers.
Sand, a kind of matter.	**Sands**, a tract of sandy land.
Force, strength or energy.	**Forces**, army.
Air, atmosphere.	**Airs**, demeanour.

V.—Nouns which have two meanings in the Plural against one in the Singular:—

	Singular.	*Plural.*	
Custom,	habit.	**Customs**,	1. Habits. 2. *Toll or Tax.*
Letter,	1. Of alphabet. 2. Epistle.	**Letters**,	1. Of alphabet. 2. Epistles. 3. *Learning.*
Pain,	Sufferin.	**Pains**,	1. Sufferings. 2. *Trouble, care.*
Effect,	Result.	**Effects**,	1. Results. 2. *Goods & chattels.*
Manner,	mode or way.	**Manners**,	1. Modes, ways. 2. *Behaviour.*
Number,	as in counting.	**Numbers**,	1. As in counting. 2. *Poetry.*
Part,	portion.	**Parts**,	1. Portions. 2. *Abilities.*

Singular,		*Plural.*	
Spectacle,	anything seen.	**Spectacles,**	1. Things seen. 2. *Glasses to help the sight.*
Premise,	a statement or proposition.	**Premises,**	1. Propositions. 2. *Surroundings to a house.*
Quarter,	a fourth part.	**Quarters,**	1. Fourth parts. 2. *Lodgings.*

VI.—Nouns, which have two forms in the Plural,—each form with a separate meaning of its own.

Brother,	Brothers,	*sons of the same mother.*
	Brethren,	*members of the same society.*
Cloth,	Cloths,	*kinds or pieces of cloth.*
	Clothes,	*articles of dress.*
Die,	Dies,	*stamps for coining.*
	Dice,	*small cubes used in games,*
Genius,	Geniuses,	*men of genius or talent.*
	Genii,	*fabulous spirits of the air.*
Index,	Index,	*table of contents.*
	Indices,	*signs used in algebra.*
Staff,	Staves,	*sticks or poles.*
	Staffs,	*a department in the army.*
Shot,	Shot,	*little balls discharged from a gun.*
	Shots,	*discharges ; as, " he had 2 shots."*

VII.—True Singulars used as Plurals.

BY a True Singular I mean that the final *s* is part of the original Singular noun, and not a sign of the Plural.

Such nouns, though Singular by etymology, are liable to be considered Plural on account of the final *s*; and two of them are now always used as if they were Plural:—

Summons.—This noun is still correctly used as a Singular ; as, " I received *a* summons to attend "; "*this* summons reached me to-day." The Plural form is *summonses.*

Alms.—" He asked *an alms,*" (New Testament.) But now the word is generally used as if it were Plural ; as, " I gave alms to the beggar, and for *these* he thanked me."

Eaves.—The edge or lower borders of the roof of a house. The word is now always used as a Plural ; as, " the eaves *are* not yet finished."

Riches.—This too is really a Singular ; as, " In one hour is so great riches come to naught." (New Testament) ; but now on account of the final *s* this noun is always used as a Plural ; as, " Riches *do* not last forever."

VIII.—True Plurals used as Singulars.

By "True Plurals" are meant nouns in which the final *s* is really a sign of the Plural.

Amends.—This is sometimes used as a Singular and sometimes as a Plural; as, "He made *an* amends"; "I accept *these* amends."

Means.—This is now *always* used as a Singular; as, "By *this* means."

News.—This is now *always* used as a Singular; as, "Ill news *runs* apace."

Innings.—This is a word used in cricket to denote the turn for going in and using the bat. It is *always* used as a Singular; as, "We have not yet had *an* innings," "Our eleven beat the other by *an* innings and 10 runs."

Gallows.—The frame-work from which criminals are hanged. This noun is used as a Singular; as, "they fixed up *a* gallows."

Odds.—A word used in betting, to denote the difference of one wager against another. "We gave him *a* heavy odds against ourselves."

N.B.—The student should guard against certain errors which are very common in practise:—

Abuse.—This word when it means "misuse" or "wrong use," may be used in the plural number; as, "This rule is liable to many abuses," that is, "this rule may be wrongly used in many ways."

But when "abuse" is taken in the sense of "bad language, reproach, &c.," it can never be used in the plural number. Thus we cannot say," "He gave us many *abuses*"; but instead of "abuses" we should say "words of abuse" or "abusive words."

Information.—This word is never used in the Plural. We cannot say, "He sent us all the *informations*."

Alphabet.—We cannot say "alphabets," but "letters of the alphabet."

Furniture.—We cannot say "furnitures," but "article or pieces of furniture."

Offspring.—This is never used in the plural: we cannot say "offsprings," but "children."

Many more instances of common errors of this kind could be given. Such errors often arise from pluralizing Material and Abstract Nouns, which custom does not allow to be used as Common Nouns.

CHAPTER III.—ADJECTIVES.

§ 1.—THE KINDS OF ADJECTIVES.

1. AN adjective qualifies a noun or pronoun; that is, it describes or limits its meaning.

2. There are altogether six different kinds of adjectives:—

(1.) **Proper**: describing a thing by some *Proper Noun.*
(2) of **Quality**: showing *of what sort* or *in what state* a thing is.
(3.) of **Quantity**: showing *how much of* a thing is meant.
(4.) of **Number**: showing *how many* things or *in what order.*
(5.) **Demonstrative**: showing *which* or *what* thing is meant.
(6.) **Distributive**: showing that things are taken *separately.*

PROPER ADJECTIVES.

3. To this class belong all such adjectives as are formed from Proper Nouns:—

The *Indian* plains=the plains of India.
A *Chinese* pilgrim=a pilgrim from China.
The *Shia* sect=the sect of Shias.
A *Shivite* temple=a temple to Shiva.
A *Persian* poet=a poet of Persia.
The *Christian* faith=the faith in Christ.
The *Turkish* empire=the empire of the Turks.
The *Gangetic* plain=the plain watered by the Ganges.
The *English* language=the language of England.

ADJECTIVES OF QUALITY OR STATE.

4. This kind of Adjective describes or limits the noun by showing the *quality* or *state* of the thing named.

A *brave* boy; a *sick* lion; a *tame* cat; a *large* field; a *black* horse; an *industrious* student; a *careful* workman.

Adjectives of quality are much more numerous than those of any other class. The different kinds of quality or state pertaining to different things, persons, or places are almost numberless; they cover the whole range of human knowledge.

ADJECTIVES OF QUANTITY OR DEGREE.

5. This kind of adjective describes or limits the noun by showing the *quantity* of the thing named, that is, *how much* of the thing is intended or specified.

There are very few adjectives of this class, and they are all contained in the following list:—*Much, little; no* or *none; some, any; enough* or *sufficient; all* or *whole.*

He ate *much* (a large quantity of) bread.
He ate *little* (a small quantity of) bread.
He ate *no* bread.
He ate *some* (a certain quantity of) bread.
He did not eat *any* (any quantity of) bread.
He ate *enough* or *sufficient* bread.
He ate *all* the (the *whole* quantity of) bread.

6. Adjectives of quantity are always followed by a *Singular* noun; and this Noun must always be either a noun of ***Material*** or an *Abstract* noun; as "much bread" (Noun of Material), "much pain" (a high degree of pain, Abstract Noun.)

Note.—It is idiomatic to speak of a *quantity* of matter (Material Noun), and a *degree* of some quality (Abstract Noun.) Hence adjectives of Quantity have also been called adjectives of Degree.

7. **Some, any.** There is not much difference in the meaning of these two words, but there is a great difference in the way in which they are used:—

(a.) "Some" is used in *affirmative* sentences; as "He has procured *some* bread." We cannot say, "He has procured *any* bread."

(b.) "Any" is used in *negative* sentences; as, "He has *not* procured *any* bread." We cannot say, "He has not procured *some* bread."

But although "any" is used in negative sentences like the above, we must never say "no any", as is so commonly done by Indian students. Thus we must not say "He has procured *no any* bread"; but we must say "He has *not* procured *any* bread," or "He has procured *no* bread." Both are in correct idioms.

(c.) "Any" and "some" are both used in *Interrogative*

sentences and without any difference either of meaning or idiom. Thus, "Has he procured *some* bread"? and "Has he procured *any* bread"? are equally correct, and both mean the same thing.

ADJECTIVES OF NUMBER.

8. THIS kind of adjective qualifies (that is, describes or limits) the noun by saying something about the *number* of the thing or things named.

Adjectives of this kind are called **Numerals** ; and they are subdivided into two main classes :—

I.—Def′-i-nite.

II.—In-def′-i-nite.

9. **Definite** Numerals denote some *exact* number.

Those which show *how many* things there are (as, one, two, three, four, &c.,) are called **Cardinals**.

Those which show *in what order* a thing stands, as, first, second, third, &c.,) are called **Ordinals**.

Those which show *how often* a thing is *repeated* are called **Multiplicative**.

Cardinals.	*Ordinals.*	*Multiplicatives.*
One	first	one only, single, simple.
Two	second	twofold, double.
Three	third	threefold, treble, triple.
Four	fourth	fourfold, quadruple (four times one.)
Five	fifth	fivefold, quintuple (five times one.)
Six	sixth	sixfold (six times one.)
Seven	seventh	sevenfold (seven times one.)
Eight	eight	eightfold (eight times one.)
Nine	ninth	ninefold (nine times one).
Ten	tenth	tenfold (ten times one.)

10. **Indefinite** Numerals denote number of some kind, without saying precisely what the number is. For this reason they are called **Indefinite**.

The only adjectives of this class are :—

All, some, enough, no, or *none*; *many, few*; *several, sundry*.

All men are mortal.	*Some* men die young.
No men were present.	*Enough* men were present.
Many men are poor.	*Few* men are rich.
Several men came.	*Sundry* men went away.

A Definite numeral is made Indefinite by prefixing the word *some* or *about* :—

Some twenty men, (= *about* twenty men,) twenty men *more or less*, were present.

11. The words "some," "enough," "all," "no or none," are adjectives of *Number* or adjectives of *Quantity*, according to the sense.

If the noun qualified by such words is a Material or Abstract Noun, the Adjective belongs to the class of Quantity, as has been explained in para. 6. But if the noun is a Common Noun (or one used as a Common Noun) and capable therefore of being in the Plural Number, the adjective belongs to the class of Number :—

Quantity (Singular)	*Number (Plural.)*
Much ; he had much bread.	**Many**; he had many loaves of bread.
Little ; he had little bread.	**Few** : he had few loaves of bread.
Enough ; he had enough bread.	**Enough** ; he had enough loaves of bread.
Some ; he had some bread.	**Some** ; he had some loaves of bread.
No ; he had no bread.	**No** ; he had no loaves of bread.
All ; he had all the bread.	**All** ; he had all the loaves of bread.

12. **Few, a few, the few.** Each of these expressions has a distinct meaning of its own :—

(*a*.) "**Few**" is a *Negative* Adjective, and signifies "not many."

He read *a few* books : (he did *not* read *many* books.)

(*b*.) "**A Few**" is an *Affirmative* Adjective, and signifies "some at least" :—

He read *a few* books ; (that is, he read *some* books *at least*, though the number was small.)

(c.) "**The few**" implies two statements, *one Negative*, and *the other Affirmative* :—

He read the few books he had.
That is ; (1) the books he had were not many ; (*Negative.*)
(2) he read all the books he had, (*Affirmative.*)

13. **Many a, a many.** The former phrase is followed by *Singular* nouns, and the latter by *Plural* ones.

(a.) "**Many a.**" Here "a" = "one ;" "many a man" means "many-times one man," or "many men ;" "many" has here the force of a Multiplicative Numeral.

Many a youth and *many a* maid
Dancing neath the greenwood shade.
—*Milton.*

(b.) "**A many.**" Here "many" has the force of a *Collective Noun*, and *of* is understood after it :—

They have not shed *a many tears*,
Dear eyes, since first I knew them well.
—*Tennyson.*

In prose it is more common to put in the word "great" between *a* and *many*. "A great many men" means "a large number *of* men," the *of* being understood, and *many* having the force of a Collective Noun.

N. B.—In Old English "menigu" was a Collective *Noun*, signifying "a multitude or large number," and "manig" was an Indefinite Numeral *Adjective* signifying "many." In modern English the same word "many" stands for both, for it is equivalent to "menigu" in the phrase *a many*, and to "manig" in the phrase *many a* or simply *many*.

14. Definite Numeral Quantities are sometimes Collective Nouns, and, as in the case of "many," the *of* is understood after them :—

A dozen (of) sheep. *A score* (of) apples.
A hundred (of) years ; *a thousand* (of) years.
A hundred-thousand (of) rupees. (But we must say "a lac *of* rupees," and not "a lac rupees.")

DEMONSTRATIVE ADJECTIVES.

15. This kind of adjective describes or limits the noun by pointing out *which* thing or *what* thing is intended.

The word Demonstrative means " pointing out."

16. Adjectives of this kind are subdivided, (as Numeral Adjectives are,) into two main classes :—

I. Definite.

II. Indefinite.

When a thing is pointed out *exactly*, as " this man," the adjective is called a **Definite** Demonstrative.

When it is pointed out in a certain sense, but *not exactly*, it is called an **Indefinite** Demonstrative :—

Definite.		*Indefinite.*	
Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
The ...	the	A, an	... *nil.*
This.. ...	... these	One, any ..	... any.
That, yon, yonder...	those, yon, yonder.	A certain ...	... certain.
Such... .. .	such	Such	... such.
The same, or self- .. same.	the same, or self-same	Some	... some.
The other ...	... the other.	Another, any other...	other, any other.

Demonstrative Adjectives are few in number, and all of them are given in the above list.

17. The adjective *the* is sometimes called the **Definite Article**, and *a* or *an* is called the **Indefinite Article**.

If they are called by these names, it must be remembered that they are not distinct parts of speech, but simply adjectives. For *the* is only a shorter and less precise form of *this, that, these*, or *those*; and *a* or *an* is only a shorter and less emphatic form of *one* :—

A stitch in time saves nine.

(Here *a* signifies *one* stitch as against *nine* stitches.)

An is used before a vowel or silent *h*; as,—

An apple; *an* egg; *an* ink-bottle; *an* heir; *an* hour; *an* honest man; *an* ox.

A is used before a consonant, before *u* sounded as *yoo*, and before *o* sounded as *wu* ;—

A kite; *a* cart; *a* bottle; *a* useful thing; *a* unit; *a* one-eyed man.

Even before an aspirated *h* we use *an*, provided the accent is on the *second* syllable ;—thus, we say "*a* his′-to-ry," because here the accent is on the *first* syllable "*his*"; but we say "*an* his-tor′-i-cal account," because here the accent is on the *second* syllable "*tor*."

18. **Definite Demonstratives.** The uses of these adjectives are shown below :—

(*a*.) **This, these.** Something *near at hand* is pointed to by these adjectives ; as,

This tree; *these* trees.

(*b*.) **That, those, yon, yonder.** These adjectives point to something *further off*; as,

That tree; *those* trees, *yon* or *yonder* tree (or trees)

N. B.—"Yon or yonder" is seldom seen except in poetry. They can be used with nouns of either number.

(*c*.) **Such.** This adjective means *of this or that kind*, and refers to something previously mentioned :—

His praise of me was not sincere: I do not like *such* a man (or *such* men.)

"Such" is also used as an *Indefinite* Demonstrative. In this case it does not refer to any thing previously mentioned, but is vague or indefinite.

He called at my house on *such a* day (=some day or other,) and I gave *such and such* an answer (some answer or other) to his questions.

(*d*.) **The same, self-same, very same.** These adjectives all refer to something previously mentioned. "Self-same" and "very same" are more emphatic than "same."

You told him to come here to-morrow; and I gave him *the same* (or the self-same, or the very same,) answer.

(*e*.) **The other.** This means the opposite to "the same"; or "the one"; as,

Two women shall be grinding at the mill; *the one* shall be taken, and *the other* left. —*New Testament.*

"**The other day.**" This peculiar phrase has an *Indefinite* sense, and means *any* day (*some* day or *other*) recently preceding and therefore distinct from the present.

> He came to see me *the other day* (=a few days ago, some day or other which I cannot exactly remember.)

19. The Definite Demonstratives are very frequently used to point out the noun, which stands as Antecedent to some Relative Pronoun following:—

> *The man who* did this deserves to die.
> *This man whom* you now see came here to-day.
> *That book that* you are reading is mine.
> *Yonder tree which* stands there is dead.
> He is not *such* a clever student *as* you are.
> You are reading *the same book which* (or *that*) I read many years ago.
> *The other men who* have come will go away again to-morrow.

20. The **Indefinite Demonstratives** are used as follows:—

(*a.*) **A, an, a certain.** These are used with singular nouns, to show that no thing or person in particular is intended or specified, as, "a man," "a certain man," "an apple." *Certain* is used with Plural nouns in the same sense; as, "certain men."

(*b.*) **One.** This word is generally a Numeral Adjective; but it may also be used as an Indefinite Demonstrative in such sentences as the following:—

> He came *one* day (on a certain day which I cannot remember) to see me.
> *One* Mr. James (a certain man whom I do not know, but who is called Mr. James) came to see me.

(*c.*) **Any.** This is more emphatic than "a" or "an"; and it can be prefixed to Plural as well as to Singular nouns.

> *Any* man (that is, any and every man) could do that.
> You may take *any* book or books (no book in particular but any book) that you like best.

(*d.*) **Some.** This is used in two senses, (1) as showing that no thing or person in particular is specified; (2) for making a Definite number Indefinite. (See above, para. 10.)

> (1) *Some* man (I do not know who he was) called here to-day.
> (2) He is owing me *some* 20 rupees, (*about* 20 rupees, *more or less.*)

(*e*) **Another, any other, other.** "Another" (with Singular nouns) and "other" (with Plural ones) are used in *affirmative* sentences; but "any other" (with nouns in either number) is used in *negative* ones; as,

> We have seen *another* man (or *other* men) to-day.
> We have *not* seen *any other* man or men to-day.

"Other" is sometimes followed by "than," and in this case it should be placed immediately before it, or as close to it as possible.—

> He has no books *other than* Sanskrit

This is better than saying, "he has no other books than Sanskrit." Here "other than" means "different from" or "except." "He has no books except Sanskrit."

21. **Some, any, one.** It depends upon the sense whether these are *Demonstrative* Adjectives, or Adjectives of *Quantity*, or Adjectives of *Number*.

Some.	(1) *Some* man called here to day	.. *Indef.*	*Demons.*
	(2) Give me *some* bread ...	. ,,	*Quant.*
	(3) Give me *some* loaves of bread .	,,	*Number.*
Any.	(1) Take *any* book you like best	. ,,	*Demons.*
	(2) He has not had *any* bread	.. ,,	*Quant.*
One.	(1) He visited me *one* day	.. ,,	*Demons.*
	(2) There is *one* loaf in the house	... *Def.*	*Number.*

DISTRIBUTIVE ADJECTIVES.

22. Distributive Adjectives denote that the things named in the sentence are taken *singly*, *separately*, or *one at a time.*

There are 6 adjectives of this class, 4 of which are used with Singular nouns, and 2 with Plural ones.

23. The 4 Distributives used with Singular nouns are *each*, *every*, *either*, *neither*.

(*a*.) **Each.** This means one of *two* things or one of any number *exceeding two* :—

> The *two* men *each* had a gun,
> The *twenty* men had *each* a gun.

(*b.*) **Every.** This is never used for one of two, but always for some number *exceeding two* :—

> *Every* man (out of the *twenty present*) had a gun.
> We cannot say;—"The two men had *every man* a gun.

"**Every six hours**" and similar expressions. This means every *period or space of six hours*, six hours being taken collectively as *one* period of time. Thus, "he felt hungry every six hours"; which means, "he felt hungry at the close of every space of six hours."

"**Every other.**" This means *every second* or *each alternate*; as, "he was attacked with fever *every other* day"; which means that he was attacked on every second day or on each alternate day.

(*c.*) **Either.** This has two meanings, (1) *one of two*, or (2) *each of two*, that is, *both.*

> (1.) You can take *either* side; that is, one side or the other.
> (2.) The river overflowed on *either* side; that is, on both sides.

(*d.*) **Neither.** This is the negative of "either" in its first meaning, and signifies *not one of two*, that is, neither the one nor the other.

> "You should take neither side"; that is, neither this side nor that, neither the one side nor the other.

24. The 2 Distributives used with Plural nouns are *respective*, *several*; and between these two there is no difference of meaning or idiom :—

> They returned to their *respective* (each to his own) homes.
> They returned to their *several* (each to his own) homes.

Note.—The word *respective* or *several* is in fact a double part of speech, being partly a Distributive Adjective and partly a Possessive Pronoun. It is a Distributive Adjective so far as it signifies *each*, and a Possessive Pronoun so far as it signifies *his own*, *her own*, *its own*, or *their own*.

25. The drift of a Distributive Adjective can be also expressed by the phrase "**a piece**," which is equivalent

in sense, though not in grammatical form, to *each* or *every*:—

> The *two* men had a gun *a piece*(=the two men had *each* a gun.)
> The *twenty* men had a gun *a piece* (=the twenty men had *each* a gun.)

26. **Each other, one another.** In these phrases we have a Distributive Adjective (*each* or *one*) combined with an Indefinite Demonstrative Adjective (*other* or *another*.)

(*a*.) "**Each other**" is used when *two* things or persons are concerned; as,

> The two men struck *each other*. (that is, *each* man struck the *other* man.)

(*b*) "**One another**" is used when *more than two* things or persons are concerned; as,

> They all loved *one another*. (that is, each man loved every other man.)

Examples for Practice.

Say to what class of adjectives each of the adjectives noted below belongs:—

> A *contented* mind is a *continual* feast. *Twelve* pies make *one* anna, *sixteen* annas make *one* rupee; so *a* pie is the *twelfth* part of *an* anna, and *an* anna is the *sixteenth* part of a rupee. You have sent *enough* food for the *short* journey that we shall take, but not *enough* men to carry our *five* boxes. To mind one's own business, and not to meddle with *other* men's concerns is a *wise* and *useful* rule *All* the men who came here to-day were provided with an *ample* meal, and they have consumed *all* the food that we had in *the* house *All* work and *no* play makes Jack a *dull* boy. Truth in the *long* run will prevail over *every* thing that is *false*. *Some* men brought us *some* wood, with which we lighted a *bright* fire and cooked *some* potatoes in the *open* air; they then returned to their *respective* homes *All* the men who took part in *this dishonest* affair, hated *one another* ever afterwards. He had a *sharp* attack of fever *every other* day. *Much* jungle could be seen on *either* bank of *the* river. *Both* sides claimed to have won *the* game; but the game was won by *neither* side.

§ 2.—OTHER WORDS USED AS ADJECTIVES.

1. THERE are certain other words, which, though they are not Adjectives Proper, are used like adjectives to qualify nouns.

These are:—(1) Participles, (2) Adverbs, (3) Nouns, (4) Infinitives, (5) Verbal Nouns. All of these say something about the quality or state of a thing, and hence if they were adjectives in form, they would belong to the class of "adjectives of quality."

2. **Participles.** These are "Verbal Adjectives," that is, adjectives formed from verbs,—being partly verbs, and partly adjectives:—

> A *fading* flower; a *defeated* enemy; a *fallen* tree.
> *Having gained* his case in court, he returned home.
> (Here "his case" is the object to the verb "having gained;" but "having gained" is a Verbal Adjective qualifying the noun or pronoun "he.")

3. **Adverbs.** There are certain adverbs of Time or Place, which are used like adjectives, provided they are preceded by the article *a* or *the*:—

> *The then* king=the king then reigning.
> *The late* king=the king lately reigning.
> *The now* king=the king now reigning.
> *The once* king=the king once or formerly reigning.
> *The above* account=the account given above.
> *A far* country=a country far distant.
> *A downward* course=a course leading downwards.
> *An outside* traveller=a traveller sitting outside.
> *An up* mail=an up-going mail.

N. B.—After each of these adverbs there is some participle or adjective understood. The adverb qualifies not the noun, but the understood participle. Thus "*the then* king"="the *then reigning* king"; and so with all the other examples. An adverb cannot qualify a noun or pronoun.

4. **Nouns.** A noun is often used to qualify another noun; but though it is *used like an adjective*, it is still a noun, and not an adjective:—

> Home joys=the joys of home.
> A village watchman=a watchman of a village.
> The summer heat=the heat of summer.

If a hyphen is put between the nouns, as in "summer-heat," then we should say that "summer-heat" is a compound noun,—that is, a noun compounded of "summer" and "heat."

5. **Infinitives.** An Infinitive placed immediately after a noun qualifies the noun going before :—

Water *to drink*=drinkable water.

A chair *to sit on*=a chair fit to be used for a seat.

N. B.—This is called the Infinitive *of Purpose*, or the *Gerundial* Infinitive. What is the purpose for which the water is wanted? To drink. What is the purpose for which the chair is wanted? To sit on.

6. **Verbal Nouns.** A Verbal Noun ending in *ing* has precisely the same force as a Gerundial Infinitive. Only it is put *before* the noun which it qualifies, and not *after* it :—

Drinking water=water *to drink*.

N. B.—The full phrase would be "water *for* drinking" or "water *for the purpose of* drinking." If the *for* is omitted and the phrase is changed into "drinking water," then how should "drinking" be parsed? It should be parsed as a Verbal Noun *used like an adjective* to qualify the noun "water." This is on the same principle as that explained above in para. 4.

§ 3.—DEGREES OF COMPARISON.

1. MOST Adjectives of Quality, two Adjectives of Quantity, *viz.*, *much* and *little*, and two Adjectives of Number, *viz.*, *many* and *few*, have degrees of comparison.

Demonstrative Adjectives and other Adjectives of Quantity and Number cannot, from the kind of meaning contained in them, have any degrees of comparison.

2. The degrees of comparison are three in number :—the Pos′-i-tive, the Com-par′-a-tive and the Su-per′-la-tive.

The **Positive** denotes the simple quality; as a *beautiful* horse.

The **Comparative** denotes a higher degree of the quality; as, a "*more beautiful* horse." This is used when *two* things of the same class are compared together, and shows which of the two possesses the quality in a higher degree than the other.

The **Superlative** denotes the highest degree of the quality; as, "the *most beautiful* horse." This is used when *one* thing is compared with *many other* or *all other* things of the same class, to show that it possesses the quality in a higher degree than all the rest.

3. In all Adjectives of *more than two syllables*, and in most Adjectives of two syllables, the Comparative is formed by adding "*more*" and the Superlative by adding "*most*," as in the examples already given.

4. But Adjectives of one syllable and some Adjectives of two syllables can also form the Comparative by adding *er* or *r*, and the Superlative by adding *est* or *st*.

(*a*.) If the Positive ends in *two consonants*, or in *a single* Consonant preceded by *two vowels*, *er* and *est* are added:—

Small	smaller	smallest.
Thick	thicker	thickest.
Bold	bolder	boldest.
Light	lighter	lightest.
Short	shorter	shortest.
Great	greater	greatest.
Brief	briefer	briefest.
Deep	deeper	deepest.
Loud	louder	loudest.

(*b*.) If the Positive ends in *one* Consonant, and the Consonant is preceded by a *short Vowel*, the final Consonant is doubled, when *er* and *est* are added:—

Thin	thinner	thinnest.
Fat	fatter	fattest.
Hot	hotter	hottest.
Fit	fitter	fittest.
Big	bigger	biggest.
Wet	wetter	wettest.
Glad	gladder	gladdest.

(*c*.) If the Positive ends in *e*, only *r* and *st* are added, and not *er* and *est*:—

Brave	braver	bravest.
Wise	wiser	wisest.
True	truer	truest.
Large	larger	largest.
Fine	finer	finest.
White	whiter	whitest.
Tame	tamer	tamest.

(*d.*) If the Positive ends in *y* and the *y* is preceded by a Consonant, the *y* is changed into *i*, when *er* and *est* are added:—

Happy	happier	happiest.
Dry	drier	driest.
Merry	merrier	merriest.
Lazy	lazier	laziest.

(*e.*) If the *y* is preceded by a Vowel, the *y* is not changed into *i*:—

Gay	gayer	gayest.
Grey	greyer	greyest.
Coy	coyer	coyest.

5. Some Adjectives form their Comparatives and Superlatives in an irregular way:—

Positive.	*Comparative.*	*Superlative.*
Bad, ill, evil	worse	worst.
Fore	former	foremost, first.
Good	better	best.
Hind	hinder	hindmost.
Late	later, latter	latest, last.
Little	less	least.
Much (quantity)	more	most.
Many (number)	more	most.
Nigh	nigher	nighest, next.
Old	older, elder	oldest, eldest.

There are six words, which are Adverbs in the Positive degree, but Adjectives in the Comparative and Superlative:—

Positive.	*Comparative.*	*Superlative.*
Forth	further	furthest.
Far	farther	farthest.
In	inner	inner-most, inmost.
Out	outer, utter	uttermost, utmost.
Be-neath	nether	nethermost.
Up	upper	uppermost, upmost.

The noun "top" gives a Superlative Adjective "top-most."

6. There are some Adjectives of Quality, which do not admit of Degrees of Comparison, since they denote some

fixed or *unique* quality that cannot be either greater or less :—

(*a.*) *Proper* Adjectives; as, *Indian, English, Victorian, Biblical.* (If a thing is Indian at all, it cannot be more Indian or less Indian.)

(*b.*) Adjectives denoting *single* objects, such as the sun, the moon, the air, &c.; as "*solar* heat, a *lunar* eclipse, *ærial* motion, a *single* example."

(*c.*) Adjectives formed from nouns of *Material*; as, "an *iron* pipe, a *gold* bracelet, a *leathern* bag, a *vegetable* substance, a *milky* fluid, a *grassy* plain."

(*d.*) Adjectives denoting *shape*; as, "a *square* box, a *round* hole, an *oblong* room, a *triangular* figure, a *right* angle, an *oval* table."

(*e.*) Adjectives denoting *time*; as, "an *annual* festival, a *daily* newspaper, a *momentary* pause, *nightly* slumber."

Demonstrative Adjectives, as is self-evident from their meaning, never have Degrees of Comparison.

Two, and only two, Adjectives of Quantity admit of Degrees of Comparison.

Much	more	most.
Little	less	least.

Two, and only two, Adjectives of Number admit of Degrees of Comparison.

Many	more	most
Few	fewer	fewest.

7. In comparing objects, one with another, the modes of expression to be used are as follows :—

(*a.*) When two things are said to be *equal* in respect of some quality, we use the *Positive* Degree with *as*——*as*, or with some other phrase :—

> This boy is *as* clever *as* that.
> This boy is *no less* clever *than* that.
> This boy is *not more* clever *than* that.

(*b*.) When two things are said to be *unequal* in respect of some quality, we use the *Comparative* Degree :—

This boy is more clever or cleverer *than* that.
This boy is *the* cleverer *of the two*.

(*c*.) When one thing is said to surpass all other things possessing the same quality, we use the *Superlative* Degree with *the*——*of* :—

"This boy is *the* cleverest *of* all."

Note 1.—The learner should guard against the common blunder made by Indian students of using *from* instead of *than* after the Comparative Degree, as in the following examples.—

This boy is cleverer *from* me.
My book is better *from* yours
Work is more healthy *from* idleness

It will help him to guard against the above error, if he will remember that *than* is a Conjunction and *from* a Preposition, and that hence they are in point of grammar as distinct as possible :—

This boy is cleverer than I (am.)
He likes you better than I (like you.)
He likes you better than (he likes) me.

Note 2.—The Superlative Degree can also be expressed by the Comparative, in the following way :—

"This boy is more clever than *all other* boys."

If this mode of expression is used, care must be taken not to leave out the word *other*; for there is no sense in saying "this boy is more clever than all boys."

8. **Latin Comparatives.** There are some comparatives, which have been taken direct from the Latin language. All of these end in *or*, and not in *er*; andall are followed by *to* instead of *than*.

His strength is	*superior to*	(greater than) mine.
His strength is	*inferior to*	(less than) mine.
This event is	*anterior to*	(earlier than) that.
This event is	*prior to*	(earlier than) that.
This event is	*posterior to*	(later than) that.
This man is	*senior to*	(older than) that.
This man is	*junior to*	(younger than) that.

9. **Comparatives which have lost their force.** There are some adjectives in the Comparative Degree, which have lost their comparative force, that is, are never now used for comparing one thing with another.

(*a.*) Latin Comparatives:—*interior, exterior, ulterior, major, minor.* These are now never followed by *to*, but are used as Adjectives in the Positive Degree:—

A fact of *minor* (secondary) importance.
He had an *ulterior* (further) purpose in doing this.
The *interior* (inside) parts of a building.

Some have become nouns:—

He is a *minor* (a person under age)
He is a *major* (in military rank.)
The *interior* of the room was well furnished.

(*b.*) English Comparatives:—*former, latter, elder, hinder, inner, outer, upper, nether.* These are now never followed by *than*:—

The *former* and the *latter* rain.
—*Old Testament.*
The *inner* meaning: the *outer* surface.
The *upper* and the *nether* mill-stones.

The words *elder* or *eldest* are often used to qualify "son" or "daughter"; as, "this is the elder of my two sons," "this is the eldest of my sons." *Elder* and *elders* are also used as nouns, to denote some person or persons of dignified rank or age.

PARSING MODEL.

"The man, who shot four tigers and two tigresses from an elephant's back on his first day of sport, received much praise, and won the highest honor."

The—Demonstrative adjective, qualifying the noun "man."
Man—Common noun, masculine gender, singular number, nominative case, subject to the verb "received."
Who—Relative pronoun, masculine gender, singular number, third person, agreeing with its antecedent "man," nominative case, subject to the verb "shot."
Shot—Verb.

Four—Numeral adjective, cardinal, qualifying the noun "tigers."

Tigers—Common noun, masculine gender, plural number, objective case after the verb "shot."

And—Conjunction, joining the two nouns "tigers" and "tigresses."

Two—Numeral adjective, cardinal, qualifying the noun "tigresses."

Tigresses—Common noun, feminine gender, plural number, objective case after the verb "shot."

From—Preposition, having "back" for its object.

An—Indefinite demonstrative adjective, qualifying the noun "elephant's."

Elephant's—Common noun, common gender, singular number, possessive case, taken with "back."

Back—Common noun, neuter gender, singular number, objective case after the preposition "from."

On—Preposition, having "day" for its object.

His—Personal pronoun, masculine gender, singular number, third person, possessive case, stands for the noun "man."

First—Numeral adjective, ordinal, qualifying the noun "day."

Day—Abstract noun, neuter gender, singular number, objective case after the preposition "on."

Of—Preposition, having "sport" for its object.

Sport—Abstract noun, neuter gender, singular number, objective case after the preposition "of."

Received—Verb.

Much—Adjective of quantity, positive degree, qualifying the noun "praise."

Praise—Abstract noun, neuter gender, singular number, objective case after the verb "received."

And—Conjunction, joining the sentence "received," &c., to the sentence "won," &c.

Won—Verb.

The highest—Adjective of quality, superlative degree, qualifying the noun "honor."

Honor—Abstract noun, neuter gender, singular number, objective case after the verb "won."

§ 4.—POSITION OF THE ADJECTIVE.

1. THE position of an Adjective in relation to its noun depends upon whether the adjective is used *attributively* or *predicatively*.

Note.—An Adjective is used "attributively" when it qualifies its noun *directly*. It is used "predicatively," when it qualifies its noun *through some verb going before*.

ADJECTIVES USED ATTRIBUTIVELY.

2 When an adjective is used attributively, the invariable rule is to keep it *as close as possible* to the noun which it qualifies.

3. In *prose* the adjective almost always precedes its noun In *poetry*, for the sake of rhyme or metre, it may be placed after its noun :—

Prose

A *just* man *Bright* prospects *This* rose. *Other* roses.
Much pain *Ten* men *The fifth* class. *Double* promotion

Poetry.

He sang to lords and ladies *gay*
The unpremeditated lay

— *Scott*

The old man *eloquent*

—*Byron*

4. When an adjective is enlarged by some qualifying phrase, it must always be placed *after* its noun :—

A man *dear* to all. A matter too *urgent* to be put off any longer. A doctor well *practised* in all the arts of medicine and *worthy* of public confidence

Note.—In such examples as the above the adjective must be placed after its noun, in consequence of the "invariable rule" given in para. 2: for if we said "a dear to all man," this would separate the adjective from its qualifying noun.

5. When several adjectives qualify the same noun at once, they can be placed either before or after their noun :

A horse strong, swift and young;
or a strong, swift and young horse.

Note 1.—If one of the adjectives is much longer than the other, it sounds better to put the shorter one first :—

> An *old* and *conscientious* servant.
> *The shorter* and less *laborious* of the two methods.

Note 2.—If the adjectives consist of *long* words, it sounds better to place them after the noun :—

> God is the maker of all things *visible* and *invisible*, *animate* and *inanimate*.

6. Sometimes an adjective is placed after its noun for the sake of point or emphasis.

How does this position give point or emphasis to the adjective? Because the natural position of the adjective is to stand *before* its noun. By putting it out of its natural place, greater attention is drawn to it; and hence arises the emphasis :—

> Things *temporal* are less precious than things *eternal*
> No man *living* could have done so well.
> I appeal from Philip *drunk* to Philip *sober*.

Note.—Sometimes a prepositional phrase is substituted for an adjective for the sake of emphasis or point :—

> A word *in season*, how good it is!
> (This is more pointed than to say "a *seasonable* word.")
> A bird *in the hand* is worth two *in the bush*.
> A friend *in need* is a friend *indeed*.

7. For the sake of emphasis or distinction, (as explained in the previous para.) an adjective used as a qualifying title is placed after its noun :—

> Alfred the *Great*. Alexander the *Great*. Yudisthir the *Just* Ethelred the *Unready*. Albert the *Good*. Louis the *Pious*. Charles the *Fat*. Philip the *Fair*. Richard the *Lion-hearted*. Charles the *Bold*.

To the same principle must be ascribed the titles "Elder" and "Younger"; as,

> Cato the *Elder*, Cato the *Younger*.
> Pliny the *Elder*; Pliny the *Younger*.

Kings of the same name have been distinguished into first, second, third, etc., to indicate their historical order.

These titles of order are usually shown by means of Roman figures, I, II, III, etc :—

Edward I, Edward II, Edward III, etc.

Note.—If we supply some noun, such as "man" after these titular adjectives, the phrase would then be a noun-phrase in apposition to the noun going before; as, "Edward I"="Edward, the first *man* or *King* of that name." "Cato the Elder"="Cato, the elder of the two men bearing that name."

Hence have arisen a large number of titular nouns, each standing after some Proper Noun, to which it is in apposition :

Peter *the Hermit*. William *the Conqueror*. Edward *the Confessor*. Warwick *the King maker*.

8. There are certain stock phrases, in which the adjective *habitually* stands after its noun.

This is chiefly due to what has been borrowed from the French language or French idiom; but it has sometimes been done for the sake of emphasis or antithesis :—

The body politic=the state or community (This is due to the old antithesis between the body *natural* (that is, the body of the individual man as made by nature,) and the body *politic* or the collective body as made by society.

Malice prepense : some evil purpose previously devised or meditated.

Heir apparent one who by right of birth, and hence "to all appearances," will succeed to the throne or to some estate.

Lords Temporal and Spiritual: This is the distinction between those who are peers or lords by temporal or worldly rank, and those who are lords by spiritual or ecclesiastical rank.

Notary public : one who registers deeds, wills, and other legal documents for the public

Knight errant : a knight who makes it his business to move from place to place in search of wrongs to be righted.

Governor-General ; Inpector-*General*; Viceroy *elect* ; bishop *elect*, etc., (the adjective "elect".denotes an officer who has been nominated or selected for the post, but has not yet been formally appointed.)

The sum *total* ; price *current* ; a fiend *incarnate* ; a god *incarnate* ; *point blank* (the white or blank spot in the centre of a target.)

ADJECTIVES USED PREDICATIVELY.

9. When an adjective is used predicatively, that is, when it qualifies its noun *through some verb going before*, it is always placed after its noun.

(*a*.) *When the verb is Intransitive or in the Passive Voice.*
All men are *mortal.* He lay *dead* on the ground. He became *very rich.* He was left *rich* by his father. He was considered *wise*

(*b*.) *When the verb is Transitive and in the Active Voice.*
My father left me *poor*, but *well educated.* The judge declared him *guilty*

N. B.—In examples (*a*) the adjective relates to the *subject* to the verb.

In examples (*b*) it relates to the *object* to the verb.

It will be afterwards explained that the adjective in example (*a*) is called the Subjective Complement, and that in example (*b*) it is called the Objective Complement.

§ 5.—IDIOMATIC USES OF *A* AND *THE*.

1. THERE are certain idiomatic uses of the articles *a* and *the*, which are common to both. It will be convenient to recapitulate these before describing what is peculiar to either.

(*a*.) When a Proper Noun is "used as a Common Noun," (that is, when it is used in a descriptive or general sense), it must have an article placed before it. (See Chap. II., § 1, para. 4.)

Kálidás was a great Indian poet.	*Proper.*
He is *the Kálidás* of his age.	*Common.*

(*b*.) When a Material Noun is used as a Common Noun, it generally has an article placed before it. (See Chap. II , § 1, para. 8.)

This box is made of *wood.*	*Material.*
He is fond of walking in *the wood.*	*Common.*

(*c*.) When an Abstract Noun is used as a Common Noun, it must have an article placed before it. (See Chap. II., § 1, para. 10.)

He is a man of *justice.*	*Abstract.*
He is *a justice* of the High Court.	*Common.*

(*d*.) When an Adverb of Time or Place is used as an adjective to qualify some noun, it must have an article placed before it. (See Chap, III., § 2, para. 3.)

> A messenger from the king *then* came. *Adverb.*
> He was a messenger of *the then* king. *Used as adjective.*

(*e*.) When an Adjective is used as, or has been changed into, a Common Noun, it must have an article placed before it. (See Chap. III, § 6, paras. 3 and 5)

> That act of yours was *noble*. *Adjective.*
> He is *a noble* by birth. *Common Noun.*

THE INDEFINITE ARTICLE.

2. *A* is sometimes used in its original sense of number, as signifying "one," or "one and the same"; as,

> He stunned the tiger at *a blow*=at a single blow, not two blows.
> Birds of *a feather* flock together; (that is, birds of one and the same feather or species)
> His conduct to-day is quite of *a piece* (of the same sort) with his conduct yesterday.
> Two of *a trade* (of the same trade) should live apart.
> They all consented to *a man* (to a single man; that is, every single man without exception consented.)
> *A stitch* (=one stitch) in time saves *nine*.
> *A bird* in the hand is worth *two* in the bush.

3. *A* is sometimes used to indicate a *class* or *kind* of anything; as,

> *A tiger* is a fierce animal; that is, any and every tiger, tigers generally.
> *A cat* is not so faithful as *a dog*; that is, the cat species is not so faithful as the dog species.
> *An Englishman* (=any person of the English nation) is more fond of travelling abroad than *a Hindu* (=any one of the Hindu race.)
> *A rose* (=the rose species) is the most beautiful of flowers.

THE DEFINITE ARTICLE.

4. The main and ordinary use of the Definite Article is to "define," mark out, or particularize something; to show that some particular thing is meant as distinct from any other thing or things of the same class.

The principal ways in which "*the*" defines or marks out an object are shown in the following examples:—

(*a.*) *To indicate something familiar or near at hand.*

Let us go and bathe in *the river*,—(the river nearest our house, or the river where we usually bathe.)

He told the boy to open *the door*,—(the door of the room in which he was.)

The air is cool on the top of *the house*,—(the house in which we live.)

He procures *the gown* for convocation day, (that is, the gown suitable to the occasion.)

Come out with me into *the street*, (the street where our house stands.)

(*b.*) *To indicate something uppermost in the mind.*

The enemy will soon attack us; (that is, the enemy in whom we are concerned.)

This settles *the matter*,—(the matter with which we are engaged.)

We have not yet finished *the work*,—(the work that we are required to do.)

Neither side gained *the victory*,—(the victory for which both were contending.)

(*c.*) *To indicate some property or possession.*

He was not in *the house* (his own house,) when we arrived

He seized the bull by *the horns* (the bull's own horns.)

They struck him in *the face* (his own face.)

He drove *the horse and carriage* (his own horse and carriage) into the town.

5. *The* is sometimes used to indicate a *class or kind* of anything. (Here its force is exactly the same as that of *a*. (See above, para. 4):—

The lion is the king of beasts; (here *the lion* stands for lions generally, or the lion species.)

The rose (the rose species) is the most beautiful of flowers.

The liar (liars generally) shall not go unpunished.

6. ***The*** **placed before a** ***Common*** **Noun sometimes gives it the meaning of an** ***Abstract*** **Noun :—**

> He felt *the patriot* (the patriotic spirit or feeling) rise within his breast.
> He acted *the lord* (the lordly or overbearing character,) wherever he went.
> He allowed *the father* (his fatherly feelings) to be overcome by *the judge* (his sense of duty as a judge,) and declared his own son to be guilty.

7. As a general rule a Proper Noun should not have *the* placed before it. But the following are exceptions :--

(*a.*) Name of rivers; as, *the* Ganges, *the* Indus, *the* Nerbudda, *the* Rhine, *the* Danube.

(*b.*) Names of *groups* of islands; as, *the* Andaman Islands, *the* East Indies, *the* Hebrides. (But *individual* islands do not have *the* placed before them; as, Ceylon, Ireland, Sicily.)

(*c.*) Names of *ranges* of mountains; as, *the* Himalayas, *the* Vindhyas, *the* Alps. (But *individual* mountains do not have *the* placed before them; as, Mount Abu, Mount Everest, Parasnath.)

(*d.*) Names of straits, gulfs, seas, and oceans; as, *the* Palk Straits; *the* Straits of Babelmandeb; *the* Gulf of Cambay; *the* Persian Gulf, *the* Bay of Bengal; *the* Arabian Sea; *the* Mediterranean Sea; *the* Indian Ocean, *the* Atlantic Ocean

The name of a province is sometimes preceded and sometimes not preceded by *the*; as, "Bengal," *the* Punjab.

The same uncertainty exists about the proper names of books; as, "*the* Bible," "*the* Ramayan," "Galistan," "Bostan." Custom alone can decide this piont.

The is not placed before the names of towns, (as London, Calcutta); nor before the names of capes (as Cape Comerin, Cape Horn); ncr before the names of countries (as England, India); nor before the name of continents (as Asia, Europe); nor before the names of *single* islands (as Ceylon, Sicily); nor before the names of *single* mountains, (as

Mount Abu, Parasnath, Everest); nor before the names of lakes (as Lake Sambhar, Lake Chilka, Lake Huron).

Omission of Article.

8. As a general rule a Common Noun should have some article placed before it. Thus we should not say "I saw dog," but "I saw *a* dog or *the* dog."

But the following exceptions may be noted :—

(*a.*) *Names of titles or professions ; as*,

Queen Victoria; *King* George I; *Lord* Ashly; *Saint* Paul; *Judge* Anson; *General* Roberts; *Father* Ignatius; Victoria; *Queen* of England; George I, *King* of England; Kareem Bux, *Carpenter*; Ram Dutt, *Goldsmith*; Jugal Kishore, *Banker or Mahájan*; Krishna Mohan, *Brahman*.

(*b.*) In many *verbal phrases of frequent occurrence*, the Common Noun which follows the verb is used without any distinction of article or number :—

The trees struck *root* (not their roots) into the ground.
The boys leave *school* (not the school) at 4 o'clock.
Students must give *ear* (not their ears) to what the teacher tells them.
He sent *word* that he would come soon.
You cannot set *foot* in this house.
He shook *hands* with his old friends.
We will keep *house* in this village.
The king resolved to give *battle* to his enemy.
The sailors cast *anchor* for the night, and set *sail* again next day.
The pile of logs has taken *fire*, or caught *fire*.
He took *breath*, when he rose up out of the water.

(*c.*) In *prepositional phrases*, which are intended to be used *for all persons and on all occasions* alike, the article is omitted before the Common Noun :—

Some came *by land*, and some *by water*.
You had better go *on foot*, than *on horse-back*.
He is out *at sea*, *on board ship*.
A rat is quite *at home*, when it is *under ground*.
Men who are *in jail* work *out of doors*.
He is a scholar *by name*, but not *in fact*.

He fell sick *at school*, and is now *in bed*.
Those who work hard *by day* must not work *by night* also.
He is *over head and ears in debt*, or *in trouble*, &c.
He begins work *at day-break* and leaves off *at sun-set*.
Such food is not fit *for man or beast*.
Speak the truth *in court*, whether you have been *at fault* or not.
We shall never get this either *for love* or *money*.
The ship is riding *at anchor*, and the sailors are now *at ease*.
This will be paid *at sight* or *on demand*.
I met your old friend *at dinner* to-day.
He lends out much money *at interest*, for he has always much cash *in hand*.

§ 6.—ADJECTIVES USED AS NOUNS.

1. ADJECTIVES have in many instances come to be used as Nouns; and sometimes the change from Adjective to Noun has become so complete, that the word can be correctly called a Noun; as "a secret," "secrets."

"Secret" was originally an adjective; and it is still an adjective of very common occurrence; as, "a secret meeting," "secret information," &c.

2. Why have Adjectives been thus changed into Nouns? *For the sake of shortness.* Some noun belongs, or did once belong, to the adjective; but for the sake of shortness the noun was first understood, and then at last dropped altogether out of sight.

3. When can the change from Adjective to Common Noun be considered complete?

The change from Adjective to Noun is complete under one or more of these three conditions:—(*a*) when we can place an article before the word, without adding any noun after it, (*b*) when we can add *s* to the end of the word to express the Plural Number, (*c*) when we can add *apostrophe s* to the end of the word to express the Possessive Case.

Nom. Sing.	*Nom. Plur.*	*Poss. Sing.*	*Poss. Plur.*
A noble	nobles	a noble's	nobles'
or	or	or	or
A nobleman.	noblemen.	a nobleman's.	noblemen's.

4. Is there no limit, then, to the use of adjectives as nouns? Yes; the limit is custom.

Thus, we can say "Cleon is *a noble* by birth," because custom has changed "noble" into a noun.

But we cannot say "Cleon is *a wicked* by nature," because custom has not authorized any one to use "wicked" as a noun.

5. Adjectives used as nouns can be arranged under the main headings shown below:—

(*a*.) Names denoting a nation or people:—

The *Persians* (=the Persian people) once ruled a great empire.
This is a *Persian's* house, not a *Greek's*.

Here the change from Adjective to Common Noun is complete, since *s* can be added to the end of the word to denote the Plural Number or the Possessive Case.

But if the Proper Noun ends in *ch*, *sh*, or *se*, the Adjective cannot be changed into a Noun, and *man* or *men* must be added to it. Thus we must say "an Englishman" not "an English"; "Frenchmen," not "Frenches;" "a Chinese *man's* garden," not "a Chinese's garden."

(*b*.) Names denoting a sect or religion:—

A Hindu; a Hindu's notions; the Hindus.
A Christian; a Christian's creed; the Christians.

Here the change from Adjective to Noun is complete, since *s* can be added to the end of the word to denote the Plural Number or the Possessive Case; and we can place the article before the word without placing any noun after it.

(*c*.) Names denoting language. Thus we can say:—

He speaks *English*,=the English language.
He reads *Sanskrit*,=the Sanskrit language.

In such cases the word "English" and Sanskrit" are Proper Nouns, and for nouns of such a kind, the change from adjective to noun is as complete as it could be.

(*d.*) As Common Nouns denoting *Persons* only, and always in a *Plural* sense. In such cases the adjective must be preceded by *the* :—

> None but *the brave* (=brave men) deserve the fair.
> —*Dryden.*
>
> To *the pure* (=pure persons) all things are pure.
> —*Proverb.*
>
> *The blind* receive their sight; *the lame* walk; *the dumb* speak; *the dead* are raised up; to *the poor* the gospel is preached.
> —*New Testament.*

Here the change from Adjective to Noun is apparent, not real. If the change were real and complete, it would be correct to say *the poors*; but this is quite wrong. We can only say *the poor*; that is, we can never add *s* to the word "poor," and therefore "poor," cannot be parsed as a noun in the Plural number. We must parse it as an Adjective qualifying the noun "men" understood.

(*e.*) As Abstract Nouns, (*Singular.*) A real Abstract Noun is formed from the adjective by placing the Definite Article before it :—

> *The good* =goodness in general.
> *The beautiful*=beauty in general.
> *The future*=future time in general.
> All the motions of his nature were towards *the true*, *the natural*, *the sweet*, *the gentle*.
> —*De Quincey.*

(*f.*) As names for some particular part or aspect of a thing. Here again the adjective is changed into a noun by prefixing the article *the* :—

> *The white*(=the white part) of the eye.
> *The vitals*(=the most vital parts) of the body.
> *The thick*(=the thickest parts) of the forest.
> Sheep are grazing on *the green* (=the green plot.)
> *The wilds*(=the wild parts) of a country.
> *The interior*(=the inside part) of a house.
> *The exteriors*(=the outside parts) of a house.
> *The middle*(=the middle part) of a river.
> *The small*(=the smallest part) of the back.

(g) Miscellaneous Adjectives used as Common Nouns :—

I.—THINGS

Singular only

Our all—all the property, &c., that we have
The whole—the sum total of any thing or things
Our best=the best thing or state belonging to us
Our worst—the worst thing or state belonging to us
Much=a great amount "much has been done"
More=a greater amount "more has been done than was expected"

Plural only

Opposites as, 'good and evil are opposites,' (opposite things)
Morals as "he is a man of good morals" (moral conduct)
Contraries as, "dreams go by contraries (bad dreams turn out good ones, and *vice versa*)
Particulars as, "let me know the particulars" (the particular facts or figures, the details)
Moveables= moveable goods
Sweets and bitters the sweet and bitter contingencies of life
Valuables — goods of especial value
Greens green vegetables of any kind
Eatables things fit to be eaten
Drinkables things fit to be drunk
Incidentals casual or incidental expenses
The Andamans the Andaman Islands
The Vindhyas —the Vindhya Mountains

Singular	*Plurals*
An extra —something added	Extra —things added
A due,—something owed	Dues,—things owed
A secret,—something hidden	Secrets,—things hidden
A Singular,—noun	Singulars, —nouns singular
A Plural,—noun	Plurals,—nouns plural
A liquid,—substance	Liquids,—things liquid
A solid,—substance	Solids,—things solid
A capital, city	Capitals,—capital cities
A total,—amount	Totals,—total amounts
A sweet,—sweetmeat	Sweets,— sweetmeats
A daily,—newspaper	Dailies,—daily newspapers
A weekly,—newspaper	Weeklies,—weekly newspapers
A uniform,—dress	Uniforms,—dresses

II.—PERSONS.

Plural only.

Our betters=the men better than ourselves.
Our equals=the men equal to ourselves.
The Commons=men below the rank of Lord.
The ancients=men of the ancient time.
The moderns=men of the modern time.

Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
Another	others	A prodigal	prodigals.
An elder	elders	A criminal	criminals.
A senior	seniors	A noble	nobles.
A junior	juniors	An individual	individuals.
A minor	minors	An innocent	innocents.
An inferior	inferiors	A white, (man)	whites.
A superior	superiors	A deaf-mute	deaf-mutes.
A native	natives	A dear	the dears.
A mortal	mortals	A rough	roughs.
An elder	elders	A worthy	worthies.
A juvenile	juveniles	A menial	menials.

6. There are certain colloquial or idiomatic phrases in which adjectives go in pairs, some noun being understood after them :—

From bad to worse. "He is going from bad to worse" (from a bad state to a worse one.)

The long and short. "The long and short (the sum and substance) of the matter is, &c.

In black and white. "Let me see it in black and white" (written with black ink on white paper.)

Through thick and thin. "He makes his way through thick and thin," (through thick or difficult obstacles and through thin or easy ones.)

From first to last=from the beginning to the end.

At sixes and sevens=in a state of disorder. "The men of the house were all at sixes and sevens" (in a state of discord.) "Every thing in the city is at sixes and sevens," (in a state of confusion.)

High and low. "He searched for his property high and low," (in high places and low ones, everywhere, up and down.)

Right or wrong. "I intend to do this, right or wrong," (whether the act is right or not.)

For better for worse. "She married you for better, for worse," (for any good or evil that may fall to your lot hereafter.)

Fast and loose. "He plays fast and loose," (with a tight or loose hold, as he may prefer; that is, at random, recklessly.)

Black and blue. "He beat them black and blue," (so as to bring out black and blue marks on the skin)

Right and left. "He struck out right and left," to this side and that side.)

Slow and steady. "Slow and steady (patience and perseverance) wins the race."

For good, for good and *all* (=finally, permanently, for all future consequences, good or evil)

7. In poetry, adjectives are used in the same way without nouns, (that is, with some noun understood,) at the option of the poet :—

Fair is foul, and foul is fair
—*Shakspeare*

O'er rough and smooth she trips along.
—*Wordsworth*

From grave to gay, from lively to severe.
—*Pope*.

8. There are several adverbial phrases, made up of a preposition and an adjective, in which some noun is understood after the adjective :—

Extent On the whole, in the main, in general, in particular, at the full or in full, at all, not at all, at most, at large, in short, a little.

Time. At last, at the latest, at first, at the first, to the last, at present, for the present, in the past, in future, for the future, once for all, before long, for long, first and foremost.

Place On the right (hand,) on the left (hand,) on high, in the open (air.)

Manner. In the right (on the true or right side of the question,) in the wrong (on the wrong side of the question); in the dark; in common; on the loose.

State At best, for the best, at worst.

—:○0○:—

CHAPTER IV.—PRONOUNS.

§ 1.—DEFINITION AND CLASSIFICATION OF PRONOUNS.

1. **A Pronoun** is a word used instead of a noun.

To avoid repeating a noun that has been either mentioned before, or is clearly understood already, we put another word instead of it; and this word is called a Pronoun, because (*pro* means "for or instead of.")

2. The usefulness of pronouns is best seen by trying to do without them.

It would sound very awkward, besides being very tedious, if we were forced to repeat the same noun again and again. We are saved all this awkwardness by pronouns:—

> John saw a snake in the garden, *this snake John* thought would hurt *John*, unless *John* killed *the snake* with a stick, *this stick John* had in *John's* hand.

The nouns in Italics can all be replaced by pronouns; and the sentence can be much better expressed as follows:—

> John saw a snake in the garden, *which he* thought would hurt *him*, unless *he* killed *it* with a stick *which he* had in *his* hand.

Here the words *he*, *him*, and *his* are pronouns used instead of "John"; the first "*which*" is used instead of "garden" the second *which* is used instead of "stick;" and *it* is used instead of "snake."

(*The great use, then, of Pronouns is to save the repetition of a noun.*)

3. Three rules or principles follow from the fact last named:—

(*a.*) Since a pronoun is used instead of a noun, it must be itself a noun or something equivalent to a noun.

(*b.*) Since a pronoun is intended to stand for some noun going before, the pronoun should not as a rule be mentioned until the noun has been mentioned.

(c.) Since a pronoun is intended to be a substitute for a noun, it must be of the same number, gender, and person as the noun it stands for.

4. There are 4 different kinds of pronouns:—

(1.) **Personal**; as, *I, thou, he, she*, &c.
(2.) **Demonstrative**; as, *this, that, such, one*, &c.
(3.) **Relative**; as, *which, who, that, as*, &c.
(4.) **Interrogative**; as, *who? which? what?*

§ 2.—PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

1 The **Personal Pronouns** are so called, because they stand for the three persons, *viz*:—

(a.) The First, which denotes the person *speaking*; as, *I, we, myself.*

I (*the person now speaking*) will do all I can to win a prize at the end of the year.

(b.) The Second, which denotes the person *spoken to*, as, *thou, you, thyself.*

You (*the person now spoken to*) should leave off this habit of idleness.

(c.) The Third, which denotes the person or thing *spoken of*; as, *he, she, it, himself, herself, itself.*

He (*the person already mentioned*) did a good day's work with his tutor.

2. Personal Pronouns have the same differences of Gender, Number, and Case that nouns have; and, in order to show these differences, they take a greater change of form than nouns do.

I.—THE FIRST PERSON, MASCULINE OR FEMININE.

Case.	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
Nominative.	I	We
Possessive.	My, mine	Our, ours
Objective.	Me	Us

II.—THE SECOND PERSON, MASCULINE OR FEMININE.

Case.	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
Nominative.	Thou	Ye or you
Possessive.	Thy, thine	Your, yours
Objective.	Thee	You

III.—THE THIRD PERSON, OF ALL GENDERS.

Case.	*Singular.*			*Plural.*
	Masculine.	*Feminine.*	*Neuter.*	*All Genders.*
Nominative.	He	She	It	They
Possessive.	His	Her or hers	Its	Their or theirs
Objective.	Him	Her	It	Them

3. The Possessive cases of most of these pronouns have, as you will have seen, two forms :—

Singular.				*Plural.*		
First Form...	My	Thy	Her	Our	Your	Their
Second ,, ..	Mine	Thine	Hers	Ours	Yours	Theirs

The first form is used when it is placed *before* its noun the second is used when it is placed *after* its noun :—

First form.	*Second form.*
This is *my* book.	This book is *mine*.
This is *thy* book.	This book is *thine*.
This is *her* book.	This book is *hers*.
This is *our* book.	This book is *ours*.
This is *your* book.	This book is *yours*.
This is *their* book.	This book is *theirs*.

Note —The possessive cases of the Personal Pronouns, being placed immediately before some noun look like adjectives. But there is no need to consider them as other than nouns, or pro nouns, because (a) they have retained the forms of the old English possessive cases from which they are derived, and (b) a Common Noun in the Possessive Case is placed before another noun in precisely the same way, as, '*the washerman's* bundle", where ' bundle" is qualified by the Possessive Noun 'washer man's " Similarly a Common Noun in the Possessive Case can be used after its noun in the same way as ' mine thine yours,'' &c Thus we can say, ' that bundle is the *washerman's*, not *ours* '

4 When the word ' self" is added to any of the above pronouns, the pronoun is called **Re flex -ive**

I —THE FIRST PERSON

Case	*Singular*	*Plural*
Nom or *Obj*	Myself	Ourselves
Possessive	My or mine own	Our own

II —THE SECOND PERSON

Case	*Singular*	*Plural*
Nom or *Obj*	Thyself	Yourselves
Possessive	Thy or thine own	Your own

III —THE THIRD PERSON

Case	*Singular*			*Plural*
	Masculine	*Feminine*	*Neuter*	*All Genders*
Nom or *Obj*	Himself	Herself	Itself	Themselves
Possessive	His own	Her own	Its own	Their own

5. The Reflexive forms of the pronouns are used for two purposes —(*a*) to show that the person (or thing) does something to himself (or itself); (*b*) to make the pronouns more emphatic.

EXAMPLES OF (*a*).

Singular.	*Plural.*
I hid myself.	We hid ourselves.
I hit my own head.	We hit our own heads
Thou pleasest thyself.	You please yourselves
Thou lovest thine own work.	You love your own work.
He (or she) hid him (or her) self.	They hid themselves.
The cat seated itself.	The cats seated themselves.

EXAMPLES OF (*b*).

Singular	*Plural*
I myself saw the horse.	We ourselves saw it.
Thou thyself sawest the horse.	You yourselves saw it.
He himself or (she herself) saw it.	They themselves saw it
The wall itself fell..	The walls themselves fell.

Examples for Practice.

Put pronouns in the place of the nouns noted below :—

(*a*) I told Ram that the snake seen by *Ram* in the garden would do *Ram* no harm, if *Ram* left *the snake* alone to go *the snake's* own way.

(*b*) The girl went into the green field, and there *the girl* saw the sheep and lambs, as *the sheep and lambs* played about in the field.

(*c*) A man brought round some wild beasts for a show. Among *the beasts* there was an elephant. *The man* threw cakes at the elephant, and *the elephant* caught *the cakes* in *the elephant's* trunk.

(*d*) A dog was carrying an umbrella for *the dog's* master. Some boys tried to take away *the umbrella* from the dog. But *the dog* was too quick for *the boys*. *The dog* ran past *the boys* at full speed, and carried the umbrella safely out of *the boys'* reach.

(*e*.) When the camel is being loaded, *the camel* kneels down, so that the load may be put on *the camel's* back. *The camel* loves men, if *men* treat *the camel* well.

(*f*.) The bees are flying towards the flowers. *The bees* suck *the flowers*, and fill *the bees'* bags with honey.

(*g*.) Wolves hunt in large packs, and when *wolves* are pressed by hunger, *wolves* become very fierce, and will attack men and eat *men* up greedily.

(*h*.) A horse cannot defend *a horse* against wolves; but *a horse* can run from *wolves*, and *wolves* are not always able to cacth *a horse*.

§ 3.—DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. **A Demonstrative Pronoun** is so called, because it *demonstrates* or *points to* some noun previously mentioned, and is used instead of it.

Note.—The noun previously mentioned, in whose place the Demonstrative Pronoun is used, might with perfect propriety and with much convenience be called the *Antecedent*. But the name "Antecedent" has been hitherto limited to the noun referred to by a *Relative* pronoun. No valid reason exists for thus limiting the use of the term "Antecedent": for the Relative and Demonstrative Pronouns have this one essential point in common,—they both imply an Antecedent, that is, they both point to some noun which has gone before. The only difference between them is that a Relative Pronoun *joins* one sentence to another besides pointing to some noun that has gone before.

2. The chief pronouns belonging to the class of Demonstrative are:—*this, that, these, those*; *one, ones, none*; *such, so.*

The student will have observed that these words have appeared already in the list of Demonstrative *Adjectives* Where, then, is the difference?

When they are followed by a noun or require some noun to be understood after them, they are **Adjectives.**

When they are used as substitutes for some noun previously mentioned, and cannot have any noun either expressed or understood after them, they are **Pronouns.**

He came to my house *one* day.

Here *one* is an adjective (Indefinite Demonstrative) qualifying its noun "day."

Your coat is black; mine is a white *one*.

Here *one* is a pronoun, which is used instead of the previously-mentioned noun "coat," and is qualified by the adjective "white."

3. The simplest forms of Demonstrative Pronouns are *he, she, it, they.*

These have been hitherto called "Personal Pronouns," partly because they give the shortest form of the Third person as distinct from the First and Second, and partly because "he" and "she" and sometimes "they" do actually relate to *persons*, and not to things.

Yet, it is equally and in fact more correct to call them Demonstrative Pronouns, because they *demonstrate* or *point to* some noun previously mentioned and are used instead of it.

1.—My father has gone. We saw *him* start a short time ago. (Here *him* is a Demonstrative Pronoun used as a substitute for the noun "father.")

2.—My mother came yesterday, we were glad to see *her*. (Here *her* is a Demonstrative Pronoun used as a substitute for the noun "mother.")

3.—The sun has risen, *it* shines brightly. (Here *it* is a Demonstrative pronoun used as a substitute for the noun "sun.")

4.—The travellers fell asleep, as soon as *they* arrived. (Here *they* is a Demonstrative Pronoun used as a substitute for the noun "travellers.")

There are few points on which grammarians are more divided amongst themselves than that relating to Demonstrative Pronouns.

The distinction which I have given in para. 2, between Demonstrative *Adjectives* and Demonstrative *Pronouns*, is substantially the same as that given in Murison's *First Book in English* (edited by John Adam) in pp. 10-15; in Abbott's *How to Tell the Parts of Speech*, Chapter IX, p. 110 ff; in Mason's *Shorter English Grammar*, § 145, p. 42; Sheppard's *Manual of English* for Matriculation candidates, § 50, Note in small print, Douglas' *English Grammar*, p. 29 and p. 122. It is less clearly given in Meiklejohn's *English Language and Grammar*, p. 30, para 8, (iii); in Longman's *School Grammar*, § 210; and in the *Manual of English Grammar*, published by the Christian Vernacular Education Society, p. 37.

On the other hand no distinction is drawn in Hiley's *English Grammar*, p. 35, § 102, and p. 42, para. 3, where the same words are given first as Demonstrative Adjectives and then as Demonstrative Pronouns without any distinction being shown. Nor is any distinction given in Morris' *Primer*, p. 36, and p. 44; or in Davidson and Alcock's *English Grammar and Analysis*, p. 41, or in Rowe and Webb's *Hints on the Study of English*, p. 87, and p. 96.

4. *It.* This pronoun has three distinct modes of reference:—

(*a.*) To a *noun* going before. In this sense it is merely a Demonstrative Neuter Pronoun used in the ordinary way:—

The sun has risen: *it* (=the sun) shines brightly.

(*b.*) To a *clause* going before:—

I have treated him as he deserved; and he knows *it*.
(Here "it" points to the clause "I have treated him as he deserved.")

(*c.*) To a *clause* coming after:—

It is sad *to hear such bad news*.
It, *viz.*, "to hear such bad news," is sad.
It is probable *that it will rain to-day*.
It, *viz.*, "that it will rain to-day," is probable.
It has not been decided *how far we can go*.
It, *viz.*, "how far we can go," has not been decided.

5. **This, that, these, those.** The uses of these words as *pronouns*, and not as *adjectives*, can be explained under the following heads:—

(*a.*) When two nouns have been mentioned in a previous sentence or clause, "**this**" has reference to the *latter* and "**that**" to the *former*:—

1. Work and play are both necessary to health; *this* (=play) gives us rest, and *that* (= work) gives us energy.
2. Dogs are more faithful animals than cats; *these* (= cats) attach themselves to places, and those (=dogs) to persons.

Observe that in the first of these sentences *this* does not specify *which* or *what* play is meant, and therefore it is not a Demonstrative Adjective. It is simply put as a substitute for the noun "play," and therefore it is a Demonstrative Pronoun.

The same explanation holds good for the other examples.

(*b.*) The word "**that**", together with its Plural form "**those**," is used as substitute for a single noun previously mentioned.

(1.) The air of the hills is cooler than *that* (=the air) of the plains.
(2.) The houses of the rich are larger than *those* (=the houses) of the poor.

(Observe the word "that" in the first example does not qualify the noun "air" by saying *which* air or *what* air, and therefore it is not an Adjective. It stands for "air" in general, and is a substitute for the noun "air"; and therefore it is a Pronoun.)

+ (c.) The words "this" or "that" can be used as substitutes for a *clause* or *sentence* previously mentioned :—

> (1.) I studied Greek and Latin when I was young, and *that* (=I studied Greek and Latin) at Oxford.

Here by using the pronoun *that* as a substitute for the sentence "I studied Greek and Latin" we not only avoid repeating this sentence a second time, but we give some emphasis to the words "at Oxford."

> (2.) Make the best use of your time at school; *that's* a wise boy.

Here "*that*" = "one who makes the best use of his time at school." All this repetition is avoided by using the pronoun *that* as a substitute for the implied sentence.

> (3.) You paid your debts; and *this* (=the payment of your debts) was quite sufficient to prove your honesty.

6. **One, ones, none.** When the noun previously mentioned is in the Singular Number, we use *one*; when the noun is Plural, we use *ones*. "None" is a shortened form of "not one" or "not ones," and is therefore used for nouns in either number:—

> (1.) He gained a prize last year; but he did not gain *one* (=a prize) this term. *(Singular.)*
> (2.) There were six lazy boys and four industrious *ones* (=boys) in our class. *(Plural.)*
> (1.) You are a coward, but I am *none* (=not one or not a coward.) *(Singular.)*
> (2.) You have four books, but I have *none* (=no books) at present. *(Plural.)*

7 **Such, so.** "Such" can be substituted for a noun in either number:—

> (1.) He is the judge appointed to hear this case, and as *such* (=as the appointed judge) you must not speak to him before the trial. *(Singular.)*
> (2.) Kings are constituted *such* (=kings) by law, and should be obeyed. *(Plural.)*

So is sometimes used in places where we could also use "such"; but "so" is a Demonstrative *Adverb* rather than a Demonstrative *Pronoun* :—

(1.) Nought to desire is all the art I know
To make men happy and to keep them *so*.

Here "so" means "in state of happiness," or simply "happy."

(2.) My business is urgent, and I hope you will treat it *so* (=as urgent.)

Examples for Practice.

Show whether the words printed in Italics are Demonstrative *Adjectives* or Demonstrative *Pronouns* :—

This horse is stronger than *that*.
Health is of more value than money; *this* cannot give such true happiness as *that*.
I prefer a white horse to a black *one*.
You will repent of this *one* day, when it is too late.
You have kept your promise; *this* was all that I asked for.
You have much money; I have *none*.
The faithfulness of a dog is greater than *that* of a cat.
One Mr. B. helped his friend in need; *that* was a true friend.
Return to your work, and *that* immediately.
Bring me *that* book, and leave *this* where it is.
The step you have taken is *one* of much risk.
The name of *that* man is Wise, and rightly is he called *such*.
Such a book as yours deserves to be well read.
Prosperous men are much exposed to flattery; for *such* alone can be made to pay for it.
Prosperous men are not always more happy than unlucky *ones*.
A pale light, like *that* of the rising moon, begins to fringe the horizon.
Will you ride *this* horse or *that*?
A stranger could not be received twice as *such* in the same house.
The plan you have chosen does not seem to me to be a wise *one*.
One man says *this*, another *that*; whom should I believe?

8. **Indefinite Demonstrative Pronouns.** Sometimes Demonstrative pronouns are used *indefinitely*; that is, they are not used as substitutes for some noun expressly mentioned, but for some noun which can be readily understood from the context or from idiom.

9. **They.** This pronoun is sometimes used for *men in general*, or some person whose name is purposely concealed.

(1.) *They* say (=men in general say) that truth and honesty is the best policy.

(2.) *They* told me (=some person or persons, whom I do not wish to name, told me) that you were guilty of theft.

10. **One.** This pronoun is often used in the sense of *any person* or *every person*.

One should take care of *one's* health.

A man (any and every man) should take care of *his* health.

Note—(*a.*) Whenever "one" is used as the subject or principal word in a sentence, it must be followed by "one" and not by "he." Thus we cannot say "*one* must take care of *his* health."

Note—(*b.*) This use of "one" is derived from the French *on*, which is a corruption of *homme*=man: and hence it means "any person, every person, no person in particular."

11 **It.** The indefinite use of this pronoun is against all rules of number, person, and gender, and can only be ascribed to idiom:

Who is *it*? *It* is I, Is *it* you? No; *it* is he. *It* is the men who work hardest, not the women. *It* was the queen, who died yesterday.

In such phrases *it* gives emphasis to the noun or pronoun following.

Sometimes the noun or object, for which the word "*it*" is used, can be understood from the context:—

It is raining=rain is raining or falling.
It snows=snow falls. *It* hails=hail falls.
It is blowing hard=the wind is blowing hard.
It thunders=thunder is thundering or rolling.
It is fine to-day=the weather is fine to-day.
It is hot=the air is hot. *It* is cold=the air is cold.
It is very windy=the air is very windy.
It is still early=the hour is still early.
It is now late=the time of day is now late.
It is two miles from here=the distance is two miles from here.
It was Autumn=this season of the year was Autumn.

Sometimes the word "*it*" is used instead of some Personal Pronoun to express endearment, familiarity, or contempt.

> What a pretty little girl *it* is (=she is)!
> What an ass *it* is (=that man is).—*Shakspeare.*
> *It* is a fine scholar indeed!

§ 4.—Relative Pronouns.

1. A **Rel'-a-tive Pronoun** is so called, because it *relates* or *refers to* some noun or other pronoun going before.

The noun going before is called the **An'-te-ce'-dent.**

2. So far as the above description goes, no difference has been shown to exist between a Demonstrative Pronoun and a Relative Pronoun; for both of these "refer to some noun going before." Where then is the difference?

The difference lies in this. A Relative Pronoun not only refers to some noun going before, (as a Demonstrative Pronoun does,) but it also *joins two sentences together*, (which a Demonstrative Pronoun does not do.)

> This is a good house:—I live in *it*. (*Demonstrative Pronoun.*)

Here are two sentences. If we wish to join them together, we must use the Relative Pronoun and say:—

> This is a good house, in *which* I live. (*Relative Pronoun.*)

3. The Relative Pronoun is most commonly expressed by *who* or *which.*

Case.	Singular.	Plural.
	Mas. and Fem.	*Neuter.*
Nominative.	Who	Which.
Possessive.	Whose	Whose.
Objective.	Whom	Which.

Point out the Antecedents to the Relative Pronouns noted below:—

We love those persons *who* are kind to us.
The pen *whose* point was broken has been mended.
The ground *which* we dig will bear a fine crop.
That is the man *whom* we saw yesterday,
Is this a dagger *which* I see before me?
We left the house in *which* we had long lived.
He lost the box of clothes *which* I brought.
The child *whose* parents are dead is an orphan.

4. The word "who" is used only for persons, that is, men and women; and is therefore of the common gender, that is, masculine or feminine.

The word "which" is used for all kinds of living things except men and women, and for things without life.

Correct the mistakes noted below:—

The bird *who* sings. The man *which* came. The ape *who* climbs the tree. The horse *who* carried me. The girl *which* sings. The ox *who* draws the plough. The man which drives the ox.

5. The Relative Pronoun is always in the same number, gender, and person as the Antecedent; but in case it is dependent on its own sentence.

Substitute a Relative for the Demonstrative Pronoun in each of the following sentences:—

This is the house; Jack built *it*.
The book is a good one; I read *it*.
This is the man; I read *his* book.
The boy has come; *he* lost his hat.
The girl has come; you were looking for *her*.
These are the trees; *their* leaves have fallen.
You built this house; I have lived long in *it*.
These men have gone; the box was stolen by *them*.
Look at those boys; we read in class with *them*.

After you have supplied the Relative Pronoun in each sentence, show whether it is in the Nominative, Possessive, or Objective Case.

6. The Relative Pronoun is sometimes used in such a way that the Antecedent is either included in it or is understood :—

(*a.*) *Who = he who*, or *she who*, or *they who*.

(*b.*) *What = the thing which* or *the things which*.

I cannot tell you now *what* (=the thing which) happened afterwards.

If the laws are *what* the (things which) you describe them to be, we must observe them.

Who (=he who) steals my purse, steals trash.

We do not know *who* (=the persons who) have done this thing.

(*c.*) *So*, *ever*, or *soever* added to the Relative gives the meaning of Plurality.

Whoso (=any and every person who) comes here will be sent back again.

Whosoever (=any and every person who) breaks this law will be punished.

Whatever they did (=every thing which they did) was wrong.

Among the books lying there, I took *whichever* (=every book which) I liked.

7. The Relative Pronoun in the Objective Case is often left out ; but never in the Nominative or Possessive.

Supply the Relative Pronoun in the following sentences :—

The box—I bought was soon lost by him.
The man—I found was an old friend.
These are the only things—I was looking for.
This is the book—I won as a prize.

Show where the Relative is left out in the following sentences, and supply its place in each sentence :—

Kindly pick up the book I dropped.
The girl you teach is very clever.
Have you seen the boy I sent ?
This is the house we lived in.
These are the wolves I shot to-day.

8. The word "**that**" is often used for "who," "whom," or "which," but never for "whose :—"

This is the house *that* Jack built.
The man *that* we were looking for has come.
He *that* fights and runs away,
Will live to fight another day.

The house *that* we lived in has fallen down.
The horse *that* carried me here is lame.
The boy *that* you promoted is clever.

In each of the above sentences put "who," "whom," or "which," for "that."

9. The word "**as**" can be used for "who" "whom," or "which," provided it is preceded by "such" or "the same." But *as* is never used for "whose."

This is not *such* a good book *as* I expected.
He is not *such* a clever student *as* you are.
Yours is not *the same* book *as* mine (is).
This is *the same* story *as* I heard ten years ago.

It must be observed that after "such" the word *as* is always used. But after "the same" it is equally or more common to use *who*, or *whom*, *which*, or *that*.

This is *the same* story *which* or *that* I heard ten years ago.
This is *the same* man *whom* or *that* I saw yesterday.
This is the man *who* or *that* came here yesterday.

10. The word "**but**" is used as a Relative Pronoun in the sense of "who not" or "which not":—

There was no one present, *but* (who not) saw the deed.
There is no vice so simple, *but* (which not) may become serious in time.

11. The word *the* is used as a Relative, provided it is placed before an adjective or adverb in the Comparative Degree, and provided a similar combination of *the* with a Comparative follows immediately after:—

The *more* wealth men have, *the more* they desire.
The nearer the bone, *the sweeter* the meat.
The sooner he comes, *the better* for him.
The stronger the ox is, *the heavier* weight it will carry.
The more rain falls, *the better* it will be for the crops.

Such sentences are always used in the sense of *quantity* or *degree*. The first "the" is a Relative Pronoun, and the second one is a Demonstrative Adjective:—"by *what* quantity of wealth men have, by *that* quantity they desire more."

§ 5.—INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. An **Interrogative Pronoun** is one which **asks a** question.

2. The Interrogative Pronoun has five different forms :—

Who spoke? (Nominative to the verb.)
Of *whom* did he speak? (Objective after preposition.)
What did he say? (Objective after verb "say.")
Which book is the best? (Nominative to verb.)
Whose book is that? (Possessive Case.)

3. When the choice lies between two or more things, we say *which*, and not *what*; as,

Which boy (out of two or more) won the prize?
Which of these books is the best?
Which houses have fallen down?

The word *whether*, which signifies one of two things or persons, is now almost obsolete :—

Whether of them twain (=which of these two men) did the will of his father?

—*New Testament.*

PARSING MODEL.

"I heard my father speak well of the man whom he brought to the house."

I—Personal pronoun, first person, common gender, singular number, nominative case, subject to the verb "heard."

Heard—Verb.

My—Personal pronoun, first person, common gender, possessive case.

Father—Common noun, masculine gender, singular number, objective case after the verb "heard."

Speak—Verb.

Well—Adverb qualifying the verb "speak."

Of—Preposition, having "man" for its object.

The—Demonstrative adjective qualifying the noun "man."

Man—Common noun, masculine gender, singular number, objective case after the proposition "of."

Whom—Relative pronoun, masculine gender, singular number, third person, agreeing with its antecedent "man;" objective case after the verb "brought."

He—Personal pronoun, third person, masculine gender, singular number, nominative case to the verb "brought.".

Brought—Verb.

To—Preposition having "house" for its object.

His—Personal pronoun, third person, masculine gender, singular number, possessive case.

House—Common noun, neuter gender, singular number, objective case after the preposition "to."

CHAPTER V.—VERBS.

§ 1.—Transitive and Intransitive.

1. (A verb is a word by means of which we can say something about a thing or person.)

2. **The Subject.** The thing or person about whom the statement is made is called the Subject. This is usually denoted by some noun or pronoun in the Nominative case.

> *He* sat in the shade. *The sun* has risen.

But the Subject to a verb is not always a noun or pronoun. It may take the form of a sentence or phrase or a verb in the Infinitive Mood :—

> *To err* is human : *to forgive* (is) divine.
> *Whether we could do this or not* was a matter of doubt.

3. **Position of the Subject.** In most cases the Subject is placed *before* the verb.

But sometimes the Subject is placed *after* its verb, and in this case the verb is often introduced by the particle *there.*

This word is not the Adverb signifying *in that place.* It has no meaning at all and cannot be translated. It is a mere expletive used for introducing the verb, whenever the verb is placed before its Subject :—

> *There* are two parts to every man.

Here the Subject to the verb is *parts*, and the verb is introduced by the particle *there.*

Pick out the Subject in the following sentences :—

> **There were ten men in the boat. There seems to be a very hot wind blowing to-day. There came a messenger from the king's court. In the morning there were four men present, and only three in the evening. Outside the gate there stands a man.**

4. A verb generally expresses some kind of *action*, and

hence verbs have been distinguished into two great classes ;

I. Transitive.

II. Intransitive.

If the action does not stop with the doer, but passes from the doer to an object, the verb is Transitive.

If the action stops with the doer and does not pass from the doer to an object, the verb is Intransitive.

"Stars shine ;" here the action implied in the verb "shine" stops with the doer. So "shine" is Intransitive.*

"The man killed a snake ;" here the action implied in the verb "killed" does not stop with the man, but passes from him to the snake. So "killed" is Transitive.

TRANSITIVE VERBS.

5 A Transitive Verb, then, is one in which the action does not stop with the doer, but passes from the doer to an object.

The object to a Transitive Verb is in the **Objective** Case whenever the object is expressed by a noun or pronoun :—

The man killed a *snake* with his stick.

The man lifted *me* up out of the water.

But the object to a Transitive Verb (like the subject to *any* verb,) may be expressed by a sentence or by a phrase or by a verb in the Infinitive Mood, and not always by a noun or pronoun :—

No one knew *how to make a beginning.*

We must find out *who he is.*

I hope *to see* you soon.

6. **Position of the Object.** The noun denoting the object is usually placed *after* the verb to which it belongs.

* Verbs which take no object have been sometimes distinguished into (*a*) **Intransitive** which denote some *action*, as "run," "walk," "jump," &c., and (*b*) **Neuter**, which denote some *state*, as "sleep," "lie" "rest ;" as "he sleeps, lies down, or rests." This distinction, however, is of no use at all, since no Grammatical principle or change of construction depends upon it. Hence it is not worth attending to ; and the name "Intransitive" should be used for *all* verbs, which take no object ; that is, for all verbs which are not Transitive.

But when the object is a relative or interrogative pronoun, or when emphasis is required, the object is placed, not after but before the verb.

Relative. The man *whom* I saw yesterday has come back to-day

I will now return the books *which* you lent me a short time ago.

Interrogative. *What* did you say? *Whom* were you looking for?

Emphasis. *Silver and gold* have I none; but *what* I have give I unto thee —*New Testament*

Reason you possess by nature; but *learning* you must acquire by labour and study.

7. **Omission of the Object.** Sometimes a verb is Transitive; but the object to it (instead of being expressed) is implied or understood.

So if you do not find any object after the verb, you cannot be certain from this that the verb is Intransitive. It may be Transitive, or it may be Intransitive; and this will depend upon the sense.

"Men eat to preserve life." Eat what? Food of some kind. Some word like "food" must be supplied or understood in order *to complete the sense.* So "food" is the Object understood after the verb "eat," and therefore "eat" is a Transitive Verb.

"Men sleep to preserve life." Sleep what? This is nonsense. No Object is here needed to complete the sense, and so "sleep" is an Intransitive Verb.

Pick out the Transitive and the Intransitive Verbs in the following sentences:—

Birds *hop* with their legs, and *peck* with their bills. Fire *burns*, and water *flows*. The wind *is blowing* very hard to-day. Do not *drink* so fast. He *reads* two hours a day; *writes* one hour; and *slumbers* eight hours. Can you *see* as well with your left eye, as with your right? The clock *has struck* four. The sun *has set*. My tooth *aches*. Thou shalt not *steal*. The kitten *tears* with its claws. Our master *teaches* well. I cannot *shoot* as well as you can, but I can *swim* better.

N. B.—Transitive Verbs, like some of the above, are said to be **used intransitively**, when the action denoted is of so general a nature, that no objects are thought of in connection with it. "Fire *burns*":—here the verb "burns" expresses a universal

fact, and hence, though it is Transitive at bottom, it may be said to be *used intransitively*. "A new-born child *sees*, but a kitten is born blind":—here the verb "sees" denotes simply "the faculty of sight," and hence, though it is Transitive at bottom, we may here say that it is *used intransitively*.

8. **Omission of the Relative as Object.** This is very common in English. (See above, Chap. IV., para. 27.)

This occurs in two kinds of sentences,—(*a*) When the verb is Transitive, (*b*) when the verb is Intransitive, but followed by a Preposition :—

(*a*) The books I bought cost three rupees
The house we occupied has fallen down.
The man I engaged has now come
He was not careful about the air he breathed.
The king spared the enemies he had conquered.
He tuned, to please a peasant's ear,
The harp a king had loved to hear.

(*b*.) The house we lived in has fallen down
The chairs we sat on are ten in number.
We have at last got the thing we fought for.
I have brought the book you spoke about.
The man you were staring at is gone

Supply the Relative Pronoun that is understood in each of the above sentences.

9. **The Double Object.** Some Transitive Verbs take two objects after them, one of which is the name of some *thing* and the other of some *person*.

The *thing* named is called the **Direct** object; the *person* named is called the **Indirect**.

Most of the verbs which take two objects are shown in the following examples :—

Bring me that book. I *forgave* him his faults. We *allowed* him two rupees. We *envy* him his good luck. He *taught* me English. He *refused* me the loan of a book. I have *asked* you a question. You *answered* me nothing. They *gave* the boy a prize. They *sent* the boy a book. They *lent* me ten rupees. They *fined* him ten rupees. He *owed* me twelve rupees. The man *told* me the story. He *showed* me the way. He *left* them all his wealth. They *played* him a trick. He *promised* me his

help. He *saved* me much grief. They *sold* him two horses. He *did* me a great kindness. He *made* me a handsome present. This man *bears* me a grudge. This affair *caused* him much trouble, and *raised* him up enemies.

Point out the Direct and Indirect objects in each of the above sentences.

10. **Dative of Interest.** The First Personal Pronoun can be placed in the Objective Case after a verb, to denote the interest taken by the speaker in the action of the verb. This is called the Dative of Interest.

He tore *me* open the sealed envelope.

Here *me* implies that the speaker took much interest,—was much surprised or much pleased,—at seeing him tear open the sealed envelope.

The Mussulman sailor ate *me* a piece of salt pork, which he chose to call fish.

Here, as before, the *me* implies that the speaker watched the event with much surprise or with any other kind of interest.

You shall bear *me* a bang for that

—*Shakspeare*.

This means "you shall bear (or receive) a bang or blow for that, and *I shall take a delight in giving it you*."

Prick *me* Bullcalf, till he roar again.

—*Shakspeare*.

This means "Prick Bullcalf till he roar again, and I shall watch you doing it with interest or amusement."

N. B.—This peculiar use of "me" appears to have been produced by the omission of the preposition *for*. "Prick me Bullcalf," that is, prick him *for me*, for my sake, for my amusement, for my interest. "He bought me a horse," that is, "he bought a horse *for* me, for my use, &c."

11. **Factitive Verbs.** There are some Transitive Verbs, which take *one* object only, but require some word or phrase to be added to the object for making the sense complete.

These verbs are called **Factitive**; and the additional word or phrase, by which the sense is made complete, is called the **Complement**.

The Complement may be in various different forms:—A noun, an adjective, a participle, a prepositional phrase, or a verb in the Infinitive Mood:—

	Subject.	*Verb.*	*Object.*	*Complement.*
Noun.	They	made	him	king.
	The king	appointed	him	a judge.
Adjective.	That grief	drove	him	mad.
	The judge	set	the prisoner	free.
Participle.	They	caught	the man	stealing a clock.
	They	found	her	still weeping.
Prep. phrase.	This plot	filled	us all	with terror.
	He	put	the engine	out of order.
Infinitive	We	compelled	the prisoner	to confess.
	The judge	ordered	him	to be punished.

The following are miscellaneous examples of Factitive Verbs followed by a Complement:—

> You must let that matter *alone*. They laid *bare* the plot. They dyed the cloth *black*. He took the thief *prisoner*. The driver held the reins *tight* The punishment he got served him *right* We must hold this plan *in reserve*. I wish he would cut his speech *short* We heard him *confess* his fault, and made him *beg* pardon. The driver let *loose* the rein.

Intransitive Verbs.

12. An Intransitive Verb, (as above defined,) is one in which the action stops with the doer and does not pass from the doer to an object.

> Rivers *flow* Winds *blow*. Horses *run*, or *walk*, or *graze*, or *lie down*. Birds *fly*. All animals *sleep*. All animals *die*. Fish *swim*. Serpents *crawl*. Jackals *howl*.

31. **Intransitive Verbs of Incomplete Predication.** Every verb in the examples just given makes a complete statement about its subject. "Rivers flow":—nothing more is here needed to make the sense *complete*. But there are some Intransitive Verbs which do not make a complete sense by themselves, but require some word or phrase to be placed after them for this purpose.

Any such verb is called a *Verb of Incomplete Predica-*

tion; and the word or phrase placed after it is called its **Complement.**

The Complement, (as in the case of Factitive Verbs, see para. 11.) may be in various different forms :—a noun, an adjective, a participle, a prepositional phrase, or a verb in the Infinitive Mood.

	Subject.	*Verb*	*Complement*
Noun.	A horse That beggar	is turned out	a four-legged animal a thief.
Adjective.	The man The dog	has fallen went	sick mad.
Participle.	The man The stag,	appears continued	pleased. running and jumping
Prep. phrase.	Your coat That book	is proved	of many colours. of no use
Infinitive	The flower You	seems appear	to be fading. to have forgotten me

N. B.—When the Complement comes after an Intransitive Verb, it is called a **Subjective Complement**, because it relates to the Subject.

But when it comes after a Factitive Verb, (see para. 11,) it is called an **Objective Complement**, because it relates to the Object.

The following are miscellaneous examples of Subjective Complements :—

> He lived *a lover* of wine, and died *a miserable pauper*. His voice sounds *harsh*. The flower smells *sweet*. The boy turned out *to be* a successful man The cattle are running *wild*. The moon is shining *bright*. The engine is *out of order*. The dream came *true*. The traveller feels *cold* and *hungry*. His speech stopped *short* in the middle The air grows *hotter and hotter*. Your plan proved (or turned out) *successful*. His face turned *pale*. Prices ran *high* last year. This coin will not pass *current*. The horse has broken *loose* from its stable. The grass seems *green and fresh*. He fell *ill* of fever. The book he published fell *flat*. He fell *asleep*. Your horse went *cheap* or *at a low price*.

14. The Complement usually stands *after* its verb but for the sake of emphasis it may be placed *before* it : —

> *Wide* is the gate, and *broad* is the way that leadeth to destruction, and *many* there be that go in thereby
> *Strait* is the gate, and *narrow* is the way that leadeth unto life, and *few* there be that find it.
> —*New Testament*
>
> *An honest man* is the noblest work of God.
> —*Pope*
>
> *Vain, vain* was all Llewellyn's woe.
> —*Spencer*.
>
> *Lifeless*, but *beautiful* he lay.
> —*Longfellow*.
>
> *Blessed* are the merciful; for they shall obtain mercy.
> —*New Testament*.

15. **Intransitive Verbs with a Preposition.** There are some verbs, which, when they stand alone, are Intransitive, but become Transitive when a Preposition is added to them.

Intransitive.	*Transitive*
(1) We laughed.	(2.) We laughed at him.

Here "him" might be parsed either as the objective case after the preposition "at," or as the objective case after the Prepositional Verb "laughed-at."

But if we change the second sentence into the Passive form, "He was laughed at by us," then *at* must be considered a part of the verb "laughed," for since there is no object, we cannot parse it as a preposition.

Intransitive.		*Transitive*
I agree		I *agree to* these terms.
Did you attend ?	..	Did you *attend to* that fact.
The dog barks ..	...	The dog *barks at* a stranger.
They despaired	..	They *despaired of* success.
They still hoped	.	They still *hoped for* pardon
He aimed or took aim	..	He *aimed at* the bird.
He repents ..	...	He *repents of* his fault.
They submitted	...	They *submitted to* the order.
They all spoke ...	...	They all *spoke* well *of* him.
He stared ...	..	He *stared at* the picture.

16. The Cognate Object. An Intransitive Verb, as you know from the definition, is never followed by an *outside* or foreign object, as a Transitive Verb is. (But it may sometimes be followed by a noun *implied already in the verb itself.*)

Thus we can say "he has lived a sad *life*," where the noun *life* is implied already in the verb "lived," and is in fact part of its meaning. (Such objects are called **cognate**) or "kindred," because the noun denoting them is of kindred or similar meaning to the meaning of the verb itself.

(The noun used for this purpose may be either (*a*) one formed directly from the verb, or (*b*) of similar or nearly similar meaning)

(*a.*) *Cognate Noun formed directly from the verb.*

He laughed a hearty *laugh*.	He slept a sound *sleep*.
He died a sad *death*.	He prayed an earnest *prayer*.
He lived a long *life*.	He sighed a deep *sigh*.
He fought a good *fight*.	He sang a fine *song*.

(*b.*) *Cognate Noun of similar meaning.*

He went a long *way*.	They shouted *applause*,
He fought a good *battle*.	= shouted an applauding shout.
He struck a deadly *blow*.	He served his *apprenticeship*,
It blows a brisk *gale*.	= his service as apprentice.
He ran his own *course*.	He ran a great *risk*,
He walked his *ten miles*.	= he ran a very risky course.

What is the use, (you will ask,) of repeating a noun, which is already contained in the verb itself? (The use of a Cognate Noun is that you can put an adjective before it, and thus express something *more* than is contained already in the verb.)

Thus "he breathed his breath" involves a useless repetition of the same word; for it merely means the same as "he breathed." But "he breathed his *last* breath" means something more than "he breathed;" for the notion of *last* has been superadded, and the sentence now means that "he died."

17. The Cognate Noun, or object, is sometimes understood after the adjective; as,

He shouted his loudest (shout.) He ran his fastest (run or pace.) He fought his best (fight.) She sang her sweetest (song.) He breathed his last (breath.) He tried his hardest (trial or attempt.) He walked his longest (walk or distance.) He swam his quickest (swim or pace.) He dived his deepest (dive.) He laughed his merriest (laugh.) He played me false (a false game.)

18. Sometimes the pronoun *it* is used in the place of a Cognate Noun, provided that no adjective is placed before it:—

We must fight *it* (=the fight) out to the end.
We have no horse; so we must foot *it*, (that is, go the distance on foot)
Lord Angelo dukes it (=acts the part of a duke) well. —*Shakespeare*.
Come and trip *it* (that is use your light, and tripping step,) as you go. —*Milton*.
Go *it*! run *it* out!

19. **Intransitive Verbs in a causal sense.** If an Intransitive Verb is used in the sense of causing a thing to be done, it becomes Transitive. Of this there are only a few examples in English:—

Intransitive.	*Causal.*
The horse trotted out	They trotted out the horse (caused it to trot out.)
Water boils ...	He boils the water (=causes it to boil)
The prisoners walk out	He walks out the prisoners (=causes them to walk out.)
A thorn ran into his hand .	He ran a thorn (=caused it to run) into his hand.
The kite flew into the air .	He flew the kite (=caused it to fly) into the air.
The soldiers march out ..	He marches out the soldiers, (=causes them to march out.)
Wheat grows in the field ...	He grows wheat (=causes it to grow) in the field.
He failed in the examination ..	I failed him (=caused him to fail) in the examination.
Th boat floated ..	He floated the boat (=caused it to float.(

20. There are a few Intransitive Verbs, in which the Causal sense is indicated by *some change of vowel or consonant* :—

Intransitive	*Transitive or Causal.*
The tree *falls* ..	. He *fells* the tree with an axe.
The sun will *rise* at six	.. I cannot *raise* or *rouse* this boy
The cow *lies* on the grass ..	The man *lays* down his coat
We must not *sit* here	... He *set* the books in order.
He *dives* into the water	... He *dips* the sponge into the water.
The horse *stood* ..	. He *stayed* the horse with the reins.
Water *drips* from the jug ...	He *drops* water from the jug.

In the same way *drench*=causes to drink, and *soak*=causes to suck.

21. **Omission of the Reflexive Pronoun.** Many Transitive Verbs, through the *habitual* omission of the Reflexive Pronoun, have acquired an Intransitive counterpart :—

He drew (*himself*) near to me.
Move (*yourself*) on a little faster.

It is more idiomatic to omit the Reflexive Pronoun after these verbs. Whenever this omission has become well established, the verb must be considered Intransitive.

The following examples show the Transitive Verb on one side, and the Intransitive counterpart on the other.

Transitive.	*Intransitive Counterpart.*
The fire *burnt* up the house	... He *burnt* with rage
Do not *stop* me ...	... Let us *stop* here a little
They *open* the doors at nine	.. School *opens* at ten o'clock
A man *breaks* stones with a hammer.	The day *breaks* at six.
The ox *drew* this cart	... He *drew* near to me.
Move away this stone .	... *Move* on a little faster.
He *broke up* the meeting	... School *broke up* at three.
The mouse *steals* food ...	The mouse *steals* into its hole
They *bathed* the child	.. Let us *bathe* here.
He *rolls* a ball down the hill	.. The ball *rolls* down the hill.
He *burst* the door open...	... The monsoon has *burst*
Bad men *hide* their faults	.. Bats *hide* during the day.
He *turned* me out of the room.	... He *turned* to me and spoke
They *drop* the boat into the water.	... Rain *drops* from the sky

They *keep* the boat on the left bank.	... The boat *keeps* on the left bank.
He *sets* the school in order	... The sun *sets* at six p. m
He must *refrain* his tongue	.. He must *refrain* from tears.
He *feeds* the horse on gram	. Many men *feed* on rice.
He *rested* his horse ..	The horse *rested* in the stable.
He *lengthened* his journey	The days begin to *lengthen*.
He *spread* his garment	.. The mist *spreads* over the earth.
The shepherd *gathered* the sheep.	.. The sheep *gathered* round their shepherd.
The wind *dispersed* the clouds.	The clouds *have dispersed* from the sky.
He *closed* the business	The day *closed* at six p. m.
The sun *melts* the snow	The snow *melts* in the sun
He *dashed* down the cup	. He *dashed* out of the room.

22. In old English, Intransitive Verbs were often followed by a Personal Pronoun, either reflexive or used reflexively.

A few of such verbs have survived to the present day as in the following phrases:—

> Hie *thee* home. Fare *thee* well Haste *thee* away. They sat *them* down. He over-ate *himself*. To over-sleep *oneself*. Vaulting ambition which o'er leaps *itself*.—*Shakspeare*.

Observe, that in all these phrases or sentences the pronoun following the Intransitive Verb is of the same person as the noun or pronoun which is the subject to the verb.

§ 2.—ACTIVE AND PASSIVE

1. A *Transitive* Verb has two voices, the **Active** and the **Passive**

2. A Verb is said to be in the Active Voice, when the subject *acts* or is active

A Verb is said to be in the Passive Voice, when the subject does not act, but is *acted on* by something.

(*a.*) *Active Voice.* "Râm kills a snake." Here **Râm** (the subject), *acts*; that is, he does something; he kills a snake.

(*b*.) ***Passive voice.*** "A snake is killed by Rám." Here a snake (the subject) ***is acted on*** by something or by some one, that is, it is killed by Rám

3 When a sentence is changed from the Active form to the Passive, the object to the Active Verb becomes the subject to the Passive Verb

Object to Active Verb	*Subject to Passive Verb*
None knew the right *road*	The right *road* was known by none
He gave six *apples* to me	Six *apples* were given by him to me
The king expelled the *thief*	The *thief* was expelled by the king
We drove *him* out of the house	*He* was driven out by us
We need six *camels* for our work,	Six *camels* are needed by us
Brutes cannot make *tools*	*Tools* cannot be made by brutes
Brutes do not possess *hands*	*Hands* are not possessed by brutes
I have lost six *sheep*	Six *sheep* were lost by me
God will bless good *men*	Good *men* will be blessed by God
Have you shut the *door*?	Has the *door* been shut by you?
I am cooking *food*	*Food* is being cooked by me

(*a*) *Change the following sentences from the Active to the Passive*—A cat chased a mouse, and a dog chased the cat He brought six apples for me The lower animals do not need tools Man alone knows how to make tools God has given no such mind to other animals We must find out the reasons of things This king conquered that Who made you and all the world?

(*b*) *Change the following sentences from Passive to Active*
The shops are closed by all the dealers This book was brought here by my servant The roof of the house was blown off by the wind The ripening wheat was destroyed by a storm of hail The soil of India is made fertile by the annual rains That fine tree was split by lightning The walls of the house were cracked by an earthquake in several places The men were ordered by the king's messengers to go away Four men must be sent by us to the market How to spell, read, and write is known by man alone His death was bewailed by all of us

Verbs, which take *two* objects after them in the Active Voice, can still take *one* in the Passive. This object may be :—

(*a*.) The **Indirect** object of the Active Verb; as,

Active Verb.	*Passive Verb.*
I forgave *him* his fault	. The fault was forgiven *him* by me.
We allowed *him* two rupees	... Two rupees were allowed *him* by us.

(*b*.) The **Direct** object of the Active Verb; as,—

Active Verb.	*Passive Verb.*
I forgave him *his fault*	... He was forgiven *his fault* by me.
We allowed him *two rupees*	... He was allowed *two rupees* by us.

(*a*) In the following sentences make the **Indirect** object of the Active Verb the subject to the Passive Verb :—

He taught me Grammar. He refused me the loan of a book. I have asked you a question. You answered me nothing. They gave the boy a prize. They sent me a book. He lent me ten rupees. He owed me twelve rupees. The man told me the story. He showed me the way. He left them all his wealth. They played him a trick. He promised me his help. They sold him two horses. He saved me much trouble.

(*b*) In the following sentences make the **Direct** object of the Active Verb the subject to the Passive Verb :—

He taught me Grammar. He refused me the loan of a book. I have asked you a question. You answered me nothing. They gave the boy a prize. He lent me ten rupees. He owed me twelve rupees. The man told me the story. He showed me the way. He left them all his wealth. They played him a trick. He promised me his help. They sold him two horses.

5. Whenever a Factitive Verb is changed from the Active Voice to the Passive, the Objective Complement becomes a Subjective one :—

Active voice : Complement to Object.	*Passive voice : Complement to Subject.*
They proclaimed him *king*	. He was proclaimed *king* by them.
They appointed him *judge*	... He was appointed *judge* by them.
They called Cromwell *protector*	.. Cromwell was called *protector* by them.

They did not crown him *king*	...	He was not crowned *king* by them.
They considered the boy *a scholar*,		The boy was considered *a scholar* by them.
I took the thief *prisoner*	...	The thief was taken *prisoner* by me.
He painted his face *black*	...	His face was painted *black* by him.
You must leave the mad dog *alone*,		The mad dog must be left *alone* by you.
He held the thief *fast*	...	The thief was held *fast* by him.
He set the prisoners *free*	...	The prisoners were set *free* by him.
He laid *bare* their designs	...	Their designs were laid *bare* by him.

6. An Intransitive Verb cannot be put into the Passive Voice.

But if a Preposition is added to the verb, and if this preposition coheres so closely with it as to be considered a part of it and to form a Transitive Verb, the Transitive Verb so formed can be put into the Passive Voice in the ordinary way.

We *act on* this rule	...	...	...	*Active.*
This rule *is acted on* by us		...	...	*Passive.*

a.) Change the following sentences from Active to Passive :—
They adhered to this plan. I agree to these terms. He aimed at the bird. Did you attend to this? The dog barks at me. They dealt kindly with him. Can we depend on him? They despair of success. I did not dream of this. All men wondered at his zeal. They came to this resolution. He proceeded with the case. He hinted at a new plan.

(b.) Change the following sentences from Passive to Active :—
This was not hoped for by me. Their rights are insisted on by them. His dress was laughed at by all of them. He was well looked after by us. He was pointed at by the crowd. Was this referred to by you? Can he be relied on by his master? The fault was repented of by him. The fox was run after by the dogs. He is well spoken of by all men. The prisoner was much stared at by the multitude. Will this be submitted to by you? His debts were much talked about by his creditors. He was trifled with by them. His arrival was long waited for by his parents. Their faults are winked at by their masters.

N. B.—(1.) *It depends entirely on custom* whether a Prepositional Verb can be thus used in the Passive Voice. Thus we can

say "he sat on the bench;" but we cannot say "the bench was sat on by him."

(2.) Whenever a Prepositional Verb can be used in the Passive Voice, that Verb may be considered Transitive; *but if it cannot be put into the Passive Voice, it must be considered Intransitive.*

7. **Verbs Active in form, but Passive in Sense.** There are a few Transitive Verbs, which are used in a Passive Sense without being put into the form of the Passive Voice; as,—

> The stone *feels* rough (is rough when it is felt.)
> Honey *tastes* sweet (is sweet when it is tasted.)
> The milk *smells* sour (is sour when it is smelt.)
> Your blame *counts* for nothing (is worth nothing when it is counted.)
> Your language *reads* well (sounds well when it is read.)
> The house *does* not *let* (is not taken when it is meant to be let.)
> The horse *does* not *sell* (is not taken when it is meant to be sold.)
> The meat *cuts* tender (is tender when it is cut.)
> That cloth will *wear* thin (will become thin when it is worn.)
> The wheels *dragged* heavily (moved heavily when they were dragged.)

Such verbs are uncommon; and no one should use an Active Verb in a Passive sense, unless the use is permitted by custom.

8. The present participle *passive* in English is ambiguous. Thus the form "being built" may be used in two different senses :—

(*a.*) To denote a continuous or unfinished action; as :—
> The house is *being built* (*i. e.*, the work of building is still going on.)

(*b.*) To denote a perfect or finished action; as :—
> The house *being built* (*i. e.*, the work of building being over and completed,) the workmen were paid off.

In consequence of this ambiguity, a custom has sprung up, (which however should not be imitated except with great caution,) of using the *active form* of the present participle in a *Passive Sense* :—

> The house *is building* (=is in a state of being built.)
> The trumpets *are sounding* (=are being sounded.)

The cannons *are firing* (=are being fired.)
The drums *are beating* (=are being beaten.)
The house *is finishing* (=is being finished.)
The book *is printing* (=is being printed.)
A book *is missing* (=is being missed.)
The cows *are milking* (=are being milked.)

§ 3.—THE INDICATIVE MOOD.

A.—Mood, Tense, Number, and Person.

1. A **Mood** denotes the *mode* or *manner* of the action expressed by the verb.

2. There are four Moods, three Finite and one Infinite, or as it is usually called, Infinitive.

(*a.*) Three Finite Moods:—

1. Indicative.
2. Imperative.
3. Subjunctive.

(*b.*) The Infinitive Mood.

3. In the Indicative Mood we *assert* or *indicate* an action as a fact; as, "He comes," "he came," "he will come."

In the Imperative we *command* an action; as, "Come thou," "come you," or "come."

In the Subjunctive Mood we *suppose* an action; as, "If he come or should come."

N. B.—The Subjunctive Mood is generally introduced by some Conjunction either expressed or understood, such as *if* in the example given.

4. The word *Finite* means *limited*;—limited by what? By the noun, pronoun, or other word placed before it as Subject. A "Finite Verb," then, means any form of the verb that is *limited in number and person* by its Subject.

But in the Infinitive Mood no Subject is mentioned; and this Mood is called Infinitive or "unlimited," because it is *not limited in number or person.*

The Infinitive Mood is formed by putting *to* before the verb; as, "to come."

Point out the Mood of each of the verbs noted below:—

> *Come* and *tell* me what you *have heard*. If you *should be* at home when I *call* at your house, I *shall be* glad. He *came* to my house at 4 o'clock in the afternoon. You *will be killed*, if that stone *falls* upon your head. Why *were* these books *brought* to me? My father *will* not *return* for some time. If he *should return* to-morrow, I *shall be* much *surprised*. *Will* you *come* soon *to see* me? *To stay* awake at night *is* bad for the health. He *told* them *to call* for him at 4 o'clock. *Put* away the books and *shut* the door of the room.

5. Number and Person. The number and person of a Finite Verb depend (as you have just learnt,) upon the word or words placed before it as Subject.

The verb is **Singular**, when its Subject is singular, and **Plural**, when its Subject is plural; as,

Singular. He loves. *Plural.* They love.

The verb is in the **First Person**, when its Subject is the pronoun *I* or *we*; as, "I love," "we love."

The verb is in the **Second Person**, when its Subject is *thou* or *you*; as, "thou lovest," "you" or "ye love."

The verb is in the **Third Person**, when its Subject is the pronoun *he*, *she*, *it*, or *they*, or when its Subject is some noun, or some sentence that is put for a noun; as, "he comes," "the cat comes," "they come," "the cats come," "that we are mortal is certain."

Hence arises the following invariable rule:—*A Finite Verb must be in the same number and person as its Subject.*

Point out the number and person of every verb in the following sentences:—

> The cow *is* a quiet and useful animal. Oxen *draw* the plough. I *see* four men coming. They *see* the sun rising. We *see* the hills in the distance. Thou *art* the wisest man in the room. The horse *carries* his rider. Four men *carry* the palanquin. That the horse is lame *is seen* by all of us. How to do this was not *understood*.

6. Tense denotes the *time* of an action.

The verb may tell you :—

(1.) That an action *is done* at the **Present** time; as, "he sees a star."

(2.) That an action *was done* in the **Past** time; as, "he saw a star."

(3.) That an action *will be done* in the **Future** time; as, "he will see a star."

A verb, then, has three main times or tenses; *viz.*, the Present; the Past; and the Future.

7. To each tense there are 4 different forms:—

I. **Indefinite**; which denotes Present, Past, or Future time in its simplest form; as "I love," "I loved," "I shall love."

II. **Continuous**; which denotes that the action (in Present, Past, or Future time) is still in progress or still *continuing*; as, "I am loving." "I was loving," "I shall be loving."

III. **Perfect**; which denotes that the action (in Present Past, or Future time) is in a complete or *perfect* state; as, "I have loved," "I had loved," "I shall have loved."

IV. **Perfect Continuous**; which combines the meanings of the two preceding forms; as, "I have been loving," "I had been loving," "I shall have been loving."

B.—Forms of the Tenses, Indicative Mood.

7. The three Tenses and twelve forms of a verb in the Indicative Mood are shown in the following table :—

I.—Active Voice.

	Form.	*Present Tense.*	*Past Tense.*	*Future Tense.*
1.	*Indefinite*	I love	I loved	I shall love.
2.	*Continuous*	I am loving	I was loving	I shall be loving.
3.	*Perfect*	I have loved	I had loved	I shall have loved.
4.	*Perfect Continuous*	I have been loving	I had been loving	I shall have been loving.

II.—Passive Voice.

Form.	Present Tense.	Past Tense.	Future Tense.
1. Indefinite	I am loved	I was loved	I shall be loved.
2. Continuous	I am being loved	I was being loved	Wanting.
3. Perfect	I have been loved.	I had been loved.	I shall have been loved
4. Perfect Continuous	Wanting.	Wanting.	Wanting.

6. The Present, Past, and Future Tenses, (Indefinite) are declined in the following form, for all numbers and persons :—

I.—Active Voice, Present Tense.

	Singular.	Plural.
1st Person	I love	We loved.
2nd "	Thou lovest	Ye, or you loved.
3rd "	He loves or loveth	They loved.

Past Tense.

	Singular	Plural.
1st Person	I loved	We loved.
2nd "	Thou lovedst	Ye, or you loved.
3rd "	He loved	They loved.

Future Tense.

	Singular.	Plural.
1st Person	I shall love	We shall love.
2nd "	Thou wilt love	Ye, or you will love.
3rd "	He will love	They will love.

N. B.—(1.) The singular forms of the Second Person (thou lovest thou lovedst, thou wilt love,) are now seldom used except in poetry. They have been superseded by the Plural forms, (you love, you loved, and you will love,) which, though Plural in fact, are used in a Singular sense, as well as in a Plural sense :—as, "Have you come, my son?" "Have you," being addressed to "son," is used in a Singular sense, and may be parsed as Singular.

(2.) The form "he loveth" is now seldom used except in poetry.

II.—Passive Voice.

Present Tense.

	Singular.	Plural.
1st Person	I am loved	We are loved.
2nd "	Thou art loved	Ye or you are loved.
3rd "	He is loved	They are loved.

Past Tense.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
1st Person	I was loved	We were loved
2nd ,,	Thou wast loved	Ye or you were loved.
3rd ,,	He was loved	They were loved.

Future Tense.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
1st Person	I shall be loved	We shall be loved.
2nd ,,	Thou will be loved	Ye or you will be loved.
3rd ,,	He will be loved	They will be loved.

10. (**Do** and **Did.** The present Indefinite in the Active Voice can also be formed by *do*, and the Past Indefinite by *did*. (The words *do* and *did* are called Auxiliary or helping verbs.))

Present Tense.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
1st Person	I do love	We do love
2nd ,,	Thou dost love	Ye, or you do love.
3rd ,,	He does love	They do love.

Past Tense.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
1st Person	I did love	We did love.
2nd ,,	Thou didst love	Ye, or you did love.
3rd ,,	He did love	They did love.

This form is used for three different purposes :—

(*a.*) For the sake of emphasis :—as, "I *do* love," I *did* love.

(*b.*) For the sake of bringing in the word "not"; as, "I *do not* love," (which is better than saying "I love not.") "I *did not* love" (which is better than saying "I loved not.")

(*c.*) For the sake of asking a question; as, "*Does* he love." "Why *did* he love?" "*Did* he not love"?

11. Whenever *do* or *did* is used for asking a question, the noun or pronoun which is the subject to the verb is placed after the *do* or *did*, and not before it; as,

"Do I love"? "Did he not love"? (*Question.*)

But whenever *do* or *did* is used for the sake of emphasis or with "not," the noun or pronoun stands before the verb, and not after it; as,

"I *do not* love,"—(*Negative.*)
"I *do* love."—(*Emphasis.*)

Correct the following:—

> Loved he not? Came he? He not saw this book. He reads not his book with care. They not slept long last night. They broke not the slate, but he broke it. You not read your book well. This letter came for me to-day or yesterday? It came not for you to-day, but yesterday. You not yet finished reading the letter?

12. **Has come, is come.** In almost all verbs the Present Perfect Tense is formed by means of the Past Participle and the Auxiliary Verb "to have":—

	Singular.	*Plural.*
1st Person	I have loved	We have loved.
2nd ,,	Thou hast loved	Ye or you have loved.
3rd ,,	He has loved	They have loved.

But there are a few Intransitive Verbs of *going* or *coming* which can substitute the verb *to be* for the verb *to have* in forming this tense:—

	Singular.	*Plural.*
1st Person	I am or have come	We are or have come.
2nd ,,	Thou art or hast come	You are or have come.
3rd ,,	He is or has come	They are or have come.

The verbs that can be used in this form are *go*, *come*, *begin*, *end*, *rise*, *set*, *fall*, and *pass*.

> I *am* gone. Thou *art* come. The summer *is* begun. The summer *is* ended. The sun *is* risen. The sun *is* set. Rome *is* fallen. The rains *are* passed.

13. **Shall** and **will.** These, (as the student has learnt already,) are the two auxiliary verbs, by means of which the future tense is formed in both the Active and the Passive Voice.

One of the puzzles in English is to know when to use *shall* and when to use *will*.

With a view to clearing up this matter, it should be understood that there are *three* senses in which the future tense can be used:—

(*a.*) To express *merely future time*, and nothing more.
(*b.*) To express future time with an implied *command*.
(*c.*) To express future time with an implied *intention*.

(a.)—Merely future time.

When nothing but future time is intended,—*mere futurity*, without any idea of command or intention being mixed up with it,—*shall* must be used for the *First* person, and *will* for the *Second* and *Third* persons, as below:—

	Singular.	*Plural.*
1st Person	I *shall* go	We *shall* go.
2nd "	Thou *wilt* go	You *will* go.
3rd "	He *will* go	They *will* go.

The reason is this. *Shall* implies some command or order, which must be carried out, whether the doer desires it or not. But *will* implies freedom of action,—some will or intention, which the doer may act upon or not, as he likes best.

We think it rude to give an order to a Second or Third Person, and so we use *will* instead of *shall* for these Persons. But we do not think it rude to give an order to ourselves, and so we use *shall* for the First Person.

(b.) An Implied Command.

Whenever we desire to express, not merely future time, but some *command* or *order* in addition, *shall* is put for *will* in the Second and Third persons; as,

You *shall* be hanged (by some one's order)
Thou *shalt* not steal, (a general commandment)
He *shall* receive his prize to-morrow, (that is, some one has given the order.)
To-morrow the school *will* be closed; (this merely expresses a future fact)
To-morrow the school *shall* be closed; (this implies that a holiday has been granted by some one's order.)

(c.) An Implied Intention.

When the speaker wishes to express some intention of

his own, then *will* is put for *shall* in the First person, and should be spoken with some emphasis :—

I *will* not steal (= I do not intend to steal.)

I *will* finish this work to-day(=I intend to finish it to-day.)

I *will* (=I intend to) let you know the hour of my return.

> The spirit of my father grows strong in me, and I *will* no longer endure it. Charles, I thank thee for thy love to me, which thou *shalt* find I *will* most kindly requite.
> —*Shakspeare.*

> I *will* be drowned ; no-body *shall* help me. (This speech, is supposed to have been uttered by a man who had fallen into a well, shows the wrong use of *shall* and *will* ; for it implies that he *wished* or *intended* to be drowned, and that he was unwilling that any one should help him.)

C.—Meanings of the Tenses, Indicative Mood.

14. The Present Indefinite. The special use of this tense is to express what is true *at all times* alike,—past, present, or future :—

> The sun *shines* by day, and the moon by night.
> Things equal to the same thing *are* equal to one another.
> Sixteen annas *make* one rupee.
> Europe *is* the smallest of the continents.
> Death *is* the common lot of all men
> An honest man's the noblest work of God.—*Pope.*
> The mountains *look* on Marathon,
> And Marathon *looks* on the sea.—*Byron.*

This tense might be called the Tense of Science, since all the permanent facts in the universe,—whatever knowledge we possess of the sky, the earth, the air, and the ocean,—are expressed by this tense.

15. The same tense is also used for expressing whatever is *permanent* or *habitual* in the lives and characters of men :—

> He *is* a fine singer. He *works* hard.
> He *loves* amusement more than work.
> He *sells* books. He *teaches* well.
> He *keeps* his promises. He *has* good health.

16. The present Indefinite can relate to some *present* act or event, provided that present time (a) is expressed by some special adverb, or (b) is implied by the context :—

> (a). I *am now* in a hurry to start.
> I *cannot* start *at present.*
> The wind *is* very cold *to day.*
> (b). I *understand* what you *say.*
> I *see* no use in doing what you *advise.*
> The door *is* open ; I did not shut it.

17. The Present Indefinite can relate to some *Future* act or event, provided that future time (a) is expressed by some special Adverb or phrase, or (b) is implied by the context.

> (a.) He *comes* (= will come) here *in a few days' time.*
> I hear that he *returns* (= will return) *to-morrow.*
> I *go* (= shall go) away *to night* ; but you *do* not *go* (= will not go) *till the day after.*
>
> (b.) When *do* you *start* (= will you start) for Calcutta ?
> I *go* (= shall go) to prepare a place for you.
>
> —*New Testament.*

18. The Present Indefinite can relate to some *past* event, when the narrator, for the sake of vivacity, describes some past event, as if it were actually passing before his eyes : —

> Baber *now leads* (= then led) his men through the Khyber Pass, and *enters* (= entered) the plains of India.

This is called the "*historic* present," because it describes an historical or past event, as if it were present.

19. **The Past Indefinite.** The special use of this tense as to state something *that was true once*, but is now **past** and gone. *It excludes absolutely all reference to* **present** *time* :—

> Baber *founded* the Mogul Empire in India.
> Vasco de Gama *was* the first man from Europe, who *rounded* the Cape of Good Hope.

As the Present Indefinite might be called the Tense of Science, so the Past Indefinite might be called the Tense of History: for all the events to which history relates are told us in this tense, unless the narrator thinks fit to use sometimes the Historic present, for the sake of vivacity.

20. **The Future Indefinite.** This tense expresses Future time in its simplest form.

The expected event may be regarded either as remotely distant or as very near:—

> It is commonly believed that the world itself *will be destroyed* at last (=in some very remote future.)
>
> The oxen *will be yoked* in a few minute's time (=a very near future.)

Note.—In the same way the Past Indefinite may refer equally to a very distant or to a very near past:—

> The Aryans invaded India in prehistoric times. (A very remote event.)
>
> My friend breathed his last a few minutes ago. (A very recent event.)

21. **The Continuous Tenses.** In all these tenses the action is regarded as *still going on* at the time referred to.

> *I am walking*: (that is, I am doing this and nothing else at the present time.) (*Present.*)
>
> *I was walking* at the time when you met me. (*Past.*)
>
> *I shall be walking* at the time when you will meet me. (*Future.*)

Note.—Such a phrase as, "He is going away to-morrow," is common, but inaccurate.

"He is going" is a *continuous* or *unfinished* present, and must therefore relate to present time only. Hence it cannot be coupled with "to-morrow," which signifies future time.

22. **The Present Perfect.** This tense invariably brings the action or event *down to the present time*:—

> I *have lived* 20 years in Lucknow, (that is, I am living there still, and I began to live there 20 years ago.)
>
> The lamp *has gone out* (that is, it has just gone out, and we are now left in darkness.)

23. The Present Perfect can never be used in refer-

ence to a past event, except when the state of things arising from that event is *still present*:—

The British Empire *has succeeded* to the Mogul.

The series of events, by which the British empire superseded the Mogul, took place more than a century ago. The events are therefore long past. Yet it is quite correct to use the Present Perfect Tense "*has* succeeded," because the state of things arising out of these past events is *still present*; the British empire *still exists*, and pertains to *present time*.

But such a sentence as the following is wrong :—

Baber *has founded* the Mogul empire.

This is wrong, because the state of things arising out of the foundation of the Mogul Empire by Baber has entirely passed away.

The verb in the following sentence is equally wrong and for the same reason :—

> Over the private sufferings and crimes of Aurangzeb we draw a veil; but history records with pain the great wrong he *has done* to his dynasty, to his co-religionists, and to the people of India. ("Did' ought to have been written instead of *has done*.)

24. *The Present Perfect is never qualified by any adverb or phrase denoting past time.*

Incorrect.	*Correct.*
The rain *has ceased* yesterday.	The rain *ceased* yesterday.
Baber *has founded* the Mogul Empire in A. D. 1525.	Baber *founded* the Mogul Empire in A. D. 1525.
The Sepoy mutiny *has broken* out more than 30 years ago.	The Sepoy mutiny *broke out* more than 30 years ago.
I *have finished* my letter last evening.	I *finished* my letter last evening.
The parrot *has died* of cold last night.	The parrot *died* of cold last night.
This custom *has been* formerly much practised.	This custom *was* formerly much practised.

An Adverb denoting *past time*, and the Present Perfect Tense which invariably denotes *present time*, contradict each other, and make nonsense. Yet the mistake is very commonly made by Indian students.

Such sentences as the following are correct, because the adverb or phrase used in each of them is of such a kind as to *connect past time with the present*: hence no contradiction occurs.

> The English empire *has been flourishing* for the past 150 years: (that is, it began to flourish 150 years ago and is still flourishing.)
>
> Letters *have passed* between us for the last 3 years: (that is, letters began to pass between us 3 years ago, and are passing still.)
>
> Fever *has raged* in the town since Monday last: (that is, fever began to rage on Monday last, and is raging still.)

25. The **Past Perfect**, (sometimes called the Pluperfect.) This is the tense used, whenever we wish to say that *some action has been completed, before another was commenced.*

The verb expressing the *previous* action is put into the Past Perfect or Pluperfect Tense. The verb expressing the *subsequent* action, *viz.*, that which was commenced after the previous one had been completed, is put into the Past Indefinite.

(*a*.) *Previous Action.* *Past Perfect.*	*Subsequent Action.* *Past Indefinite.*
He *had been* ill two days,	when the doctor *was sent for.*
The ship *had* almost *sunk*,	before any one *knew* that it was sinking.
He *had seen* many foreign cities,	before he *returned* home.
He *had slept* six hours,	when he *woke up* from his sleep.

(*b*). *Subsequent Action.* *Past Indefinite.*	*Previous Action.* *Past Perfect.*
The boat *was sunk* by a hurricane,	which *had* suddenly *sprung up.*
The sheep *fled* in great haste;	for a wolf *had entered* the fold.
No one *wished* to live in that house,	where the murder *had been committed.*
The doctor *came* to the patient,	who *had* long *been* ill.

The Past Perfect ought never to be used at all *except to show the priority of one past event to another.*

Yet Indian students frequently use the Past Perfect, when no priority of any kind is implied, and where they ought to use the

Past Indefinite. Here is a specimen of a letter despatched under an official signature :—

> "I beg to inform you that the trustees to the——— endowment, at the meeting convened in 19th July, 1891, *had* unanimously resolved to reserve the option of appointing or dismissing the men employed, etc.

Here the event referred to should have been expressed in the *Past Indefinite*. The use of the Past Perfect is quite wrong in this place, because there is no priority of one event to another.

26. **The Future Perfect.** This is the tense used to denote that some action *will have been completed*, *before another will be commenced* :—

> I *shall have lived* 40 years, before that event *will come* to pass.
>
> A hundred years or more *will have elapsed*, before the name of that good man *will be forgotten*.

27. **The Perfect Continuous Tenses.** These tenses combine the meaning of a Continuous tense with that of a Perfect tense. They have 3 separate forms :—(*a*) the Present Perfect of continued action; (*b*) the Past Perfect of continued action; (*c*) the Future Perfect of continued action. None of these occur in the Passive voice :—

(*a*.) He *has been reading* that book all day. (*Present*.)
(This means that he began to read it in the morning, and is reading it still, or has only just left off reading it.).

(*b*.) He *had been reading* that book all day, before you *took* it away from him. (*Past*.)
(Here the previous action is denoted by the Past Perfect, and the subsequent one by the Past Indefinite.)

(*c*.) He *will have finished* that book by sunset. (*Future*.)
(Here, the time of sunset has not yet come. But by the time it does come, he will have finished reading the book.)

§ 4.—IMPERATIVE MOOD.

1. **The Imperative Mood** is used only in the Present Tense, and only in the Second Person :—

Singular.	*Plural*.
Speak, or speak thou	Speak, or speak you, or speak ye.

2. (To express the *first* and *third* persons of this Mood, we use the Auxiliary Verb *let*,) which is itself the second person (Singular or Plural) of the Imperative Mood of the verb "to let"; as,

	Singular.	*Plural.*
1st Person	Let me speak	Let us speak.
3rd ,,	Let him speak	Let them speak.

N. B.—Here *speak* is in the Infinitive Mood with the *to* left out.

In older English, however, and sometimes even to this day in poetry, but not in prose, the first and third persons of the Imperative can be expressed without the help of "let"; as,

> Every soldier *kill* (=let every soldier kill, or every soldier is ordered to kill,) his prisoners.
>
> —*Shakspeare.*
>
> Thither our path lies; *wind we* (=let us wind) up the height.
>
> —*R. Browning.*

The older form of the Imperative as used in the third person has survived in the common phrase *suffice it*, which means "let it suffice" or "let it be sufficient": as,

> *Suffice it* to say that all the men, whatever faults they were accused of, were guilty.

3. (The chief uses of the Imperative Mood are to express (*a*) *command*, (*b*) *precept*, or (*c*) *entreaty*; and hence the name "Imperative," which signifies "command" only, is too narrow.)

(*a*.) *Command* :—

> *Speak*,—or I fire.
>
> *Awake, arise, be* for ever fallen. —*Milton.*

(*b*.) *Precept* or *Invitation* :—

> *Go* to the ant, thou sluggard; *consider* her ways and be wise.
>
> —*Old Testament.*
>
> *Judge* not, that ye be not judged.
>
> —*New Testament.*
>
> *Come* unto me, all ye that travail and are heavy-laden, and I will give you rest.
>
> —*New Testament.*

(*c*.) *Entreaty* or *Prayer* :—

> *Give* us this day our daily bread, and *forgive* us our trespasses, as we forgive them that trespass against us.
>
> —*Lord's Prayer.*
>
> Father, *forgive* them; for they know not what they do.
>
> —*New Testament.*

4. In speaking to an equal or to an inferior some additional force or emphasis is given to an entreaty by adding the word *do*; as,

> *Do come* out with me, before the rain begins to fall.
> *Do leave off* making that noise.

Note.—This emphatic form of the Imperative is the same at bottom as the emphatic form of the Present Indefinite; as, I *do dislike* noise. (See above § 3, para. 10.)

5. In making a request to a superior, or in doing so to an equal in terms of respect, "be so good, etc.," is a phrase commonly used:—

> *Be so good* as to lend me that book.

6. The Imperative Mood is sometimes used to express a **Supposition**, in which case it has the same force as the Subjunctive Mood:—

> *Take care* of the pence, and the pounds will take care of themselves (=If you take care of the pence, the pounds will, etc.).
> *Resist* the devil, and he will flee from you, (=If you resist the devil, he will flee, etc.)

7. Sometimes, but very rarely, the Imperative Mood is used **absolutely**:—

> A large number of men, *say* a hundred, are working on the railroad.

§ 5.—THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

1. The **Subjunctive Mood** is so called, because it is generally *subjoined* to some other sentence, and seldom stands alone.

2. The Present, Past, and Future Tenses (Indefinite) are declined as follows in the Active Voice:—

Present Tense.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
1st Person	If I love	If we love.
2nd "	If thou love (*not lovest*)	If you love.
3rd "	If he love (*not loveth*)	If they love.

Past Tense.

	Singular.	Plural.
1st Person	If I love	If we loved.
2nd „	If thou loved (*not lovedst*)	If you loved.
3rd „	If he loved	If they loved.

Future Tense.

	Singular.	Plural.
1st Person	If I should love	If we should love.
2nd „	If thou shouldest love	If ye or you should love.
3rd „	If he should love	If they should love.

But the forms *thou love*, *he love*, and *thou loved*, are getting more and more out of use; and the forms of the Indicative Mood are now generally used in their place; as, "if thou lovest (instead of *if thou love*); "if he loves" (instead of "*if he love*"); "if thou lovedst (instead of "*if thou loved*.")

3. The verb *to be* has retained the Subjunctive forms in a more marked and complete way than any other verb :—

Present Tense.

	Singular.	Plural.
1st Person	If I be	If we be.
2nd „	If thou be	If ye or you be.
3rd „	If he be	If they be.

Past Tense.

	Singular.	Plural.
1st Person	If I were	If we were.
2nd „	If thou wert	If ye or you were.
3rd „	If he were	If they were.

Future Tense.

	Singular.	Plural.
1st Person	If I should be	If we should be.
2nd „	If thou shouldest be	If ye or you should be.
3rd „	If he should be	If they should be.

The forms of the Past and Future Tenses are still in common use. The forms of the Present Tense are not so common, and those of the Indicative Mood are sometimes used intead of them.

4. The forms for the Continuous and Perfect Tenses in the Active Voice are shown below :—

	Continuous.	*Perfect.*
Present	If I be loving	If I have loved.
Past	If I were loving	If I had loved.
Future	If I should be loving	If I should have loved.

5. In the Passive Voice the only tenses of the Subjunctive Mood, which are in ordinary use, are the Indefinite and the Perfect :—

	Indefinite.	*Perfect.*
Present	If I be loved	If I have been loved.
Past	If I were loved	If I had been loved.
Future	If I should be loved	If I should have been loved.

The Second and Third persons, Singular and Plural, of the above 6 tenses are declined by means of the Auxiliary Verb "to be" with the Past or Passive Participle of the other verb annexed.

THE USES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

6. The Indicative Mood expresses *a fact*; the Imperative Mood expresses *an order*; the Subjunctive Mood expresses any thing except a fact or an order, such as *a purpose, a wish,* or *a condition.*

(1.)—A PURPOSE.

In this case the verb in the Subjunctive Mood is preceded by the conjunction *that* or *lest* (lest=that not,) and some of the tenses are formed by the help of the Auxiliary Verbs *may* and *might.*

	Indicative.	*Subjunctive : Purpose.*
Present. or *Future.*	I give you a prize,	that you *may work* well again.
	I shall keep your book,	lest you *should lose* it. / that you *may* not *lose* it.
Past.	I gave you a prize,	that you *might work* well again.
	I kept your book,	lest you *might lose* it. / that you *might* not *lose* it.

(2.)—A WISH.

Thy kingdom *come*; or *may* thy kingdom *come*.
Thy will *be done*: or *may* thy will *be done*.
I wish that he *were* as clever as his sister.
Mine *be* a cot beside the rill. —*Rogers*.
God *save* the queen. Long *live* the king.
His blood *be* on us and on our children.
—*New Testament*.

(3.)—CONDITION AND ITS CONSEQUENCE.

In such cases the verb expressing the *condition* is generally preceded by the conjunction *if*. The verb expressing the *consequence* is expressed by the auxiliary "*would*."

	First Sentence: Condition.	*Second Sentence: Consequence.*
Present or *Future.*	If he *should meet* me,	he *would know* me at once.
	If I *were* in his place,	I *would pay* the rupee.
Past.	If he *had met* me,	he *would have known* me.
	If I *had been* in his place,	I *would have paid* the rupee.

(Sometimes the *if* is left out. In this case the *should*, or the *had*, or the *were* must stand first; as,)

Present or *Future.*	*Should* he *meet* me,	he *would know* me at once.
	Were I in his place	I *would pay* the rupee.
Past.	*Had* he *met* me,	he *would have known* me.
	Had I *been* in his place,	I *would have paid* the rupee.

Sometimes the Conditional sentence is left out or understood, and only the Consequent sentence is expressed:—

He *would* never agree to that, ("if you asked him," understood.)

He *would* be very thankful to you for this kindness ("if you were to do him the kindness," understood.)

He *would* not hear my voice, fair child. (He would not hear my voice, if I called him back.)
—*Mrs. Hemans.*

7. **Indicative and Subjunctive.** Either of these moods can be used after *if*, but not with the same signification.

When the verb following "if" asserts something as *certain*, the Indicative Mood is used. When the verb asserts something as *conditional* or doubtful, the Subjunctive Mood is used.

(*a.*) *Indicative* :—

If he *is* not guilty, (and this is known to be the fact,) why do you still keep him in jail?

(*b.*) *Subjunctive* :—

If he *be* guilty, (and this is doubtful,) he will incur a heavy punishment.

Note.—The Conjunctions chiefly used to denote doubt, condition, or supposition, and therefore chiefly used with the Subjunctive Moods, are :—*if, unless, though, lest, till.*

8. **Shall, should.** In grammatical *form* "should" is the past tense of the verb "shall"; but in *force* or *meaning* it has two different uses :—

(*a.*) For forming the tenses of the Subjunctive Mood, as has been shown already :

(*b.*) For expressing some *duty*, as will be seen in the following examples :—

He *should* take a walk every day for the benefit of his health.
Shouldest not thou also have had compassion on thy fellow-servant, even as I had compassion on thee?

—*New Testament.*

Note.—It was pointed out in § 3, para. 13, that "shall" expresses a command. "Should" in the same way expresses a command or duty, but in a milder and more courteous way. To say "you *shall* do this" means "I command you to do this." To say "you *should* do this" means "it is your duty to do this."

Whenever "should" is used in the sense of *duty*, it is in the Indicative Mood, and has no connection with the Subjunctive Mood

9. **Will, would.** In grammatical *form* "would" is the Past Tense of "will." But in *force* or *meaning* it has two different uses :—

(*a.*) For helping to form the tenses of the Subjunctive Mood, as has been shown already:

(*b.*) For expressing some *habit* or habitual act of will in past time :—

The bird *would* come every day to receive crumbs of bread.

Here "would come" means "*had the will* to come, or *made a habit* of coming." This agrees with what has been said in § 3, para. 13, where it is explained that the verb "will" implies some intention or act of will.

Whenever "would" is used in the sense of *habit*, it is in the Indicative Mood, and has no connection with the Subjunctive Mood.

§ 6.—The Infinitive Mood.

1. The Infinitive Mood, (as you have learnt already,) is so called, because by means of this mood we speak of an action *without defining the doer*. It can be used for any doer, and therefore it has *no number* and *no person*.

The word *to* added to the verb is the sign of the Infinitive Mood.

2. The forms of the Infinitive Mood are four in number, and all are in the Present Tense :—

Form.	*Active Voice.*	*Passive Voice.*
Indefinite,	To send,	To be sent.
Continuous,	To be sending,	*Wanting.*
Perfect,	To have sent,	To have been sent.
Perfect Continuous,	To have been sending,	*Wanting.*

There is no Past and no Future Tense to the Infinitive Mood.

The Future Tense of the Infinitive can be expressed only by some phrase; as, "to be about to send;" "to be on the point of sending;" "to be going to send."

8. Omission of "to." The word *to* is the sign of the Infinitive Mood. But there are some verbs which take the Infinitive after them without the *to*.

(*a*.) The most common of these verbs are shown in the following examples:—

I *hear* thee speak (to speak) of a better land.
I *saw* him take (to take) aim with his bow.
You *need* not send (to send) those books to me.
I *feel* the cold air strike (to strike) against my face.
He *dared* not say (to say) this in open day.
He *made* me come (to come) and sit (to sit) beside him.
I *let* him go (to go) back to his own house.
They *bade* me tell (to tell) them the right road.
We *watched* him go (to go) and come (to come.)
We *beheld* the fish rise (to rise.)

(*b*.) The *to* is also left out after all the Auxiliary Verbs. (A verb which helps to form a tense or mood is called Auxiliary.)

I shall *go*	*equals*	I intend *to go*.
I can *go*	,,	I am able *to go*.
I would *go*	,,	I was able *to go*.
I should *go*	,,	I ought *to go*.
I must *go*	,,	I am compelled *to go*.
I may *go*	,,	I am permitted *to go*.
I might *go*	,,	I was permitted *to go*.
Let me *go*	,,	Permit me *to go*.
I will *go*	,,	I am willing *to go*.
I would *go*	,,	I was willing *to go*, or I was in the habit of going.

(*c*.) The *to* is also left out after the verb, "had," in such phrases as, "had better," "had rather," "had sooner," "has as soon—as."

You had better not *remain* here.
I had rather *take* this, than that.
I had sooner *run* than *walk*.
I had as soon *run* as *walk*.

Note.—"Had" here is used in a Subjunctive sense, =would have. "I had better not remain here" means "I would have (it) better not (to) remain here."

(*d.*) The *to* need not be repeated after "than," if it has been used once already with some previous verb:—

He is better able *to walk* than *run*—to run.
I am resolved *to fight* sooner than *yield*=to yield.
They were taught *to learn* every thing by heart rather than *understand it*—to understand it.

(*e.*) The *to* is not used after the preposition "but."

He did nothing but *laugh* (=to laugh.)

USES OF THE INFINITIVE MOOD.

4. There are two main uses of the Infinitive Mood:—

I. The Simple or Noun-Infinitive.

II. The Gerundial Infinitive.

5. The Noun-Infinitive may be used (*a*) as the Subject to a Finite Verb, (*b*) as the Object to a Finite Verb, *or* as the Complement to a verb "of incomplete predication":—

(*a.*) Subject to a Finite Verb:—

To err (=error) is human; *to forgive* (=forgiveness) is divine
To die (=death) is the common lot of man.

(*b.*) Object to a Finite Verb:—

They expect *to succeed* (=success.) A good man does not fear *to die* (=death.)

(*c.*) Complement to a verb of Incomplete Predication.

He appears *to be* a wise man.
He was considered *to be* the best in the class.
They declared him *to be* a wise man.
I can *go*; I should *go*; I may *go*; I might *go*; &c.

6. The Gerundial Infinitive is used after a verb, a noun, or an adjective, and usually in the sense of *purpose*:—

(*a.*) After a verb:—

He came *to see* (=for the purpose of seeing) the sport.
The book was sent *to be given* (=for the purpose of being given) as a prize.

(*b.*) After a noun:—

We have no water *to drink*.
Give him a book *to read*.

Here "to drink" qualifies the noun "water" as an adjective would do, by showing *the purpose* for which the water will be used, and hence the kind of water. "To read" qualifies the noun "book" in the same kind of way.

(*c*.) After an Adjective :—

He is quick *to hear*, and slow *to speak*.

"Quick" in what respect or for what purpose? To hear.
"Slow" in what respect or for what purpose? To speak.

Note.—The Gerundial Infinitive, when it comes after a Verb or after an Adjective, is sometimes used in the sense of *cause* or *reason*, and not always in the sense of purpose :—

He wept *to see* that shocking sight.
I was sorry *to hear* such bad news.

"Wept" from what cause? at seeing that shocking sight.
"Sorry" for what reason? at hearing such bad news.

7. Infinitive with am and have. The Infinitive Mood is used in a peculiar way after the verbs *to be* or *to have*.

(1.) I *am to do* this = it is settled that I shall do this.
I *was to do* this = it was settled that I shall do this.
I *was to have done* this = it was settled that I should do this (but something prevented me.)
If I *were to do* this = if I should do this, (but I do not say that I will,) I should be rather imprudent.

(2.) I *have to do* this = it is my duty to do this.
I *had to do* this = it was my duty to do this, (and I did it.)

8. There are two more uses of the Infinitive, which are rather common :—

(*a*.) For the sake of bringing in a **Parenthesis**, that is, a phrase inserted into the middle of a sentence for explaining something or for introducing something new and unexpected :—

I am,—*to tell* you the truth,—quite tired of this work.
They were thunderstruck,—so *to speak*,—on hearing this news.

Note.—In all such cases, the Infinitive is *absolute*; that is, it stands by itself, and is not connected grammatically with any other word in the sentence. This must be parsed as the Gerun-

dial, and not as the Simple Infinitive, since it conveys, however imperfectly, the idea of *purpose*.

(*b*.) As a form of **exclamation**.

> *To think* that he shall have told so many lies!
> Foolish fellow! *to suppose* that such conduct would be allowed!

Note.—Here, as in the previous example, the Infinitive is *absolute*. This must be parsed as the Simple Infinitive. Here it is more like a *Noun*, and conveys no idea of purpose.

Messrs. Rowe and Webb, (in *Hints*, p. 113, Ed. 1887) add another kind of instance, (which they call Interrogation,) where, as they represent, the Infinitive is used *absolutely*; but I think they are mistaken. Their examples are :—

> Why *dream* and *wait* for him longer?—*Longfellow*.
> Come, loiterer, come; a Douglas thou,
> And *shun* to wreath the victor's brow?—*Scott*.
> Thou *wear* a lion's hide? —*Shakspeare*.

In all of these examples some auxiliary verb, (as might be expected in a rapid or exclamatory sentence,) has been omitted. "Why *dost thou* dream and wait"? "*Art* thou a Douglas, and *dost* thou shun, &c." "*Dost* or *canst* thou wear a lion's hide"?

It is quite clear, I think, that the Personal Pronoun "thou" in the above examples *must be* the subject to some *Finite* Verb expressed or understood. If we understand some auxiliary Verb, such as "dost" or "canst," then the verb following is an ordinary case of the Infinitive Mood with the "*to*" left out, as has been explained already in para. 3, (*b*.)

§ 7.—PARTICIPLES OR VERBAL ADJECTIVES.

1. **A Participle** is so called, because it is *partly* a verb and *partly* an adjective.

This double meaning of Participle is very well described by calling it a "Verbal Adjective"; for a participle is not one part of speech, but two combined, a verb and adjective in one.

2. The forms of the different Participles are as shown below:—

Transitive Verbs.

	Active Voice.	*Passive Voice.*
Present or Continuous	Loving	Being loved.
Past	(*Wanting*)	Loved.
Perfect	Having loved	Having been loved.

Intransitive Verbs.

Present or continuous	... Fading.
Past	... Faded.
Perfect	... Having faded.

3. A Participle has two main uses:—

(1.) As part of a Finite Verb.

(2.) As an Adjective qualifying some noun.

I.—*As part of a Finite Verb.*

4. The student will have seen already that many of the tenses of english verbs are formed with the help of the Past or Present Participle.

Thus all the tenses of the Passive Voice are formed out of the verb "to be" followed by the Past Participle; as, "I am loved;" "I was loved"; "I shall be loved."

Again, all the Continuous Tenses in the Active Voice are formed out of the verb "to be" followed by the Present Participle; as, "I am loving"; "I was loving"; "I shall be loving."

Again, the Perfect Tenses in the Active Voice are formed out of the verb "to have" followed by the Past Participle; as "I have loved," "I had loved," "I shall have loved."

5. **Absolute use of Participles.** A participle can be used **absolutely** with a noun or pronoun in the Nominative Case going before it. A noun or pronoun so used is called the **Nominative Absolute**. (The word "absolute" means

"free, standing alone, not dependent on any other word.")

(1.) *He having declared* his wish, the company went away.
(2.) *The town having been taken*, the inhabitants fled.
(3.) *The dawn appearing*, all the people rose up.
(4.) *I being sick*, the doctor was sent for at once.
(5.) *This being done*, they sat down and rested.

In this construction, the Participle is *not* an adjective qualifying the noun that goes before. It has the force (not the form) of a Finite Verb rather than that of an adjective, because it makes a statement concerning its noun, as a Finite Verb does concerning its Subject.

If we substitute a Finite Verb for the Participle, and put some conjunction before the noun, the above sentences would be written thus :—

(1.) *When* he *had declared* his wish, (= he having declared his wish,) the company went away.

(2.) *As soon as* the town *was taken*, (= the town having been taken,) the inhabitants fled.

(3.) *When* the dawn *appeared* (= the dawn appearing,) all the people rose up.

(4.) *Because* I *was sick* (= I being sick,) the doctor was sent for at once.

(5.) *As soon as* this *was done* (= this being done,) they sat down and rested.

6. **Impersonal Absolute.** Sometimes the noun or pronoun, (which should be placed in the Nominative Absolute before the Absolute Participle,) is left out or understood.

The Participle in such cases is said to be used *impersonally*, because it may relate to any and every person, and not to any one person or persons in particular.

Supposing this to be true, what follows ?
Judging from the clouds, it will rain to-day.
Speaking plainly, that was a serious fault.
Granting that he is guilty, he must be punished.
Assuming that he will come, what shall we say to him ?

In the place of each of the above participles, some Finite Verb with some noun or pronoun could be substituted with the help of a conjunction. Thus:—

> *Supposing*, = if I, you, he, &c., or anyone supposes.
> *Judging*, = if, you, he, &c., or anyone judges.

Substitute a Finite Verb with a conjunction in the place of the Absolute Participles noted below:—

> The fog *being* very dense, we could not proceed on our journey. The real culprit *having confessed* his crime, the other man was released and declared innocent. The men *being* ready to start, we left our tents. *Judging* from what you say, the case will be lost. St. Paul preached at Rome, no man *forbidding* him. *Assuming* that the report is true, there is nothing more to be done. He and his friend *having put* their funds together, the business will certainly prosper.

II.—AS AN ADJECTIVE.

7. An adjective, as you will remember, is a word used to qualify a noun or pronoun.

A Participle (or Verbal Adjective) does the very same thing; as, a "fading flower," a "faded flower." Here "fading" or "faded" are participles of the verb "fade," and they qualify the noun flower.

Point out the noun or pronoun qualified by the participle (or Verbal Adjective) in each of the following sentences.

> *Being tired* of work, the men went back to their houses. The *returned* soldier was received gladly by his parents. *Having been warned* of the danger, I stayed there no longer. *Grazing* on the fresh grass, the lambs soon became strong. A *fighting* horse gives much trouble to his master. *Having said* all that I desired to say, I wished him good morning. She has a *winning* smile. Where did you find that *budding* rose? A badly *ventilated* room is not healthy. The house, *having been cleared* from top to bottom, was made quite healthy. The trench *dug* across the road let the water run off. What a *surprising* fact!

8. A Participle or Verbal Adjective can, like ordinary adjectives, be qualified by an adverb; as,

> The man was picked up in an *almost* dying state.
> Having died *suddenly*, he was not able to express his last wishes.

Here *almost* qualifies "dying," and *suddenly* qualifies "having died."

9. A Participle or Verbal Adjective can, like ordinary adjectives, have three degrees of comparison, and these are formed by *more* and *most*; as, "this flower is *more* faded than that." "That song is the *most* pleasing that I have ever heard."

Here *more* gives the Comparative Degree of the Past Participle "faded," and *most* gives the Superlative Degree of the Present Participle "pleasing."

10. Since a Participle is a verb as well as an adjective, it can govern an object like ordinary Transitive Verbs in the Active Voice; as, "Having finished *his work*, he went home."

Here "work" is the object after the Transitive Verb "to finish."

Point out the object after all the Participles in the following sentences, and show which objects are Direct and which are Indirect:—

> *Having been asked* a loan, he refused to give it. The ploughman returned home in the evening, *treading* the ground with weary steps. *Having given* me the prize which I earned, the master praised my industry. The oxen moved slowly over the ground, *dragging* the plough behind them. That boy there, *painting* a picture, is my brother. He hears his daughter *singing* a new song. My wife, *expecting* me to return, did not leave the house.

11. **Past Participle.** The use of such participles depends upon whether the verb is Transitive or Intransitive.

(*a.*) If the verb is *Transitive*, the Past Participle is never used in the Active Voice, but only in the Passive:—

> This was a man *beloved* by all.
> The *besieged* city fell at last.
> A man of sorrows and *acquainted* with grief.
> This much-*praised* man proved to be a rogue.
> Gold is a metal *dug* out of the earth.
> He trod upon a *broken* reed.

(*b*.) (If the verb is *Intransitive*, the Past Participle is always placed *before* the noun which it qualifies, and never after it:—

> The *faded* rose. A *failed* * candidate. A *retired* officer. The *returned* soldier. The *dead* horse. The *fallen* city. The *risen* sun. A *withered* flower.
>
> His *withered* cheek and tresses gray. —*Scott.*
>
> *Departed* spirits of the mighty dead. —*Campbell.*

If the speaker or writer desires to place the Past Participle *after* its noun, he must insert the Relative Pronoun and change the participle into a Finite Verb; as,

> The horse of Mr. A., *proceeded* to England, is for sale, (This is wrong. The sentence should be:—"the horse of Mr. A., *who has proceeded* to England, is for sale.")

Correct the following:—

> There is now no scent in the rose *faded* this morning.
> Lamps are lighted from oil *risen* out of the earth.
> This was the sword of the soldier *returned* to his country.
> I am sorry for the candidate *failed* in the last examination.

But the Past Participle of an Intransitive Verb is sometimes put *after* its noun *in poetry*. This, however, should never be done in prose.

> A Daniel *come* to judgment. —*Shakspeare.*

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* In *Hints on the Study of English* by Rowe and Webb, such an expression as "failed candidate" is said to be "incorrect" and "not idiomatic English." See page 226, Ed. 1887. I think, however, that it is quite idiomatic as well as grammatically correct, since it is strictly analogous to such phrases as "a dead horse," "a faded flower," the accuracy of which is surely unquestionable. "Failed" is here the Past Participle of the Intransitive verb "fail," and is correctly and idiomatically placed before its noun, as the Past Participle of many other Intransitive verbs can be in English. A "*failed* candidate" is a correct equivalent to "a candidate *who has failed*." Similarly "a *passed* candidate" can stand for "a candidate *who has passed*."

Mourn for the brave—the brave that are no more,
All *sunk* beneath the wave, hard by their native shore.

—*Cowper*.

For he's your grandad *come* at last,
To leave us now no more.

—*M. Barr*.

Even in prose the Past Participle of an Intransitive Verb is sometimes, *but very rarely*, placed after its noun :—

In times *past*=in times which have passed.
In days long gone=which have gone long ago.
He is a man *descended* from a high family.

These are very exceptional cases and should not be imitated.

12. The Past Participle of Verbs is sometimes used to express some permanent habit, state, or character :—

A well *read* man=a man who has read much and read well.
A well *behaved* man=a man whose habitual behaviour is good.
An out-*spoken* man=a man, who habitually speaks out his mind.
A *retired* man=a man who makes a habit of retiring from public notice, a man of a retiring disposition.

From this use of the Past Participle has arisen a large class of Adjectives, which are formed from nouns by adding *ed* to the end of the noun. Such adjectives are formed exactly on the same pattern as Past Participles, and are used in the same way to express habit, state, or character .—

An evil-*heart*-ed man. A hot-*head*-ed man. A *land*-ed proprietor. A long-*tail*-ed ape. A smooth-*skin*-ned cat. His *saint*-ed mother. A red-*color*-ed rose. A rough-*face*-d youth A *hood*-ed snake. A long-*leg*-ged spider. A purple-*crest*-ed helmet. A many-*page*-d book. A long-*arm*-ed monkey. A thickly-*wood*-ed hill. A noble-*mind*-ed man. A warm-*blood*-ed animal. A high-*wall*-ed city. A quick-*sight*-ed man. A *wing*-ed messenger. A swift-*foot*-ed horse. A broad-*back*-ed elephant. A single-*log*-ged boat. A double-*barrel*-led gun. A *string*-ed instrument. A sharp-*edge*-d knife.

13. Present and Perfect Participles. These participles must be parsed as Verbal Adjectives qualifying the noun, to which they belong. But there is often some *meaning* implied in them, which could not be conveyed by a mere adjective.

The meanings implied in such participles are (*a*) Time, (*b*) Cause or Reason, (*c*) Condition.

(*a.*) *Time.*

Walking along the street, (=*while* I was walking,) I met a friend.

Having met my friend, (=*after* I had met my friend,) I went back with him to his house.

The enemy, *having been driven* (=*after* they had been driven) from their fort, fled away in a panic.

(*b.*) *Cause or Reason.*

Being tired with the toil (=*because* he was tired,) he sat down to rest.

Having been lazy (=*because* he was lazy) all the year, he was not promoted to a higher class.

The letter, *having been addressed* (=*because* it was addressed) to the wrong house, never reached me.

(*c.*) *Condition.*

Turning to the left, (=*if* you turn to the left,) you will find the place you want.

He thought that, *having enquired* into everything, (=*if* he enquirred into everything,) he would get at the facts.

14. **Participles used as Nouns.** In Chapter III, § 6, para. 5, (*g*) it was shown that adjectives can be used as nouns, by leaving out the noun, and putting the adjective into the Plural Number; as *valuables* = valuable things.

Since a Participle is a Verbal Adjective, participles too can sometimes (but not often) be used as nouns, by leaving out the noun and putting the participle into the plural number; as,

By-gones = by-gone things. "Let by-gones be by-gones;" (let past grievances be forgiven and forgotten.)

Belongings = things belonging. "He went away with all his belongings" (= with all the things belonging to him.)

Surroundings = things surrounding. "His surroundings (= the things surrounding him) have always been pleasant."

15. Participles can also be used as common nouns, when they are preceded by *the*, and when *person* or *persons* is understood. (See above Chapter III, § 6, para. 5, (*d.*)

The conqueror spared *the living* and *the dying*, and buried *the dead*.
This is *the first begotten* of my sons.
The king is *the* Lord's *anointed*.

—*Old Testament*.

The deceased was only 24 years old.
He came to seek and to save *the wandering* and *the lost*
Heaven is the home of *the blessed*; so we need not mourn for *the departed*.

§ 8.—GERUNDS OR VERBAL NOUNS.

1. THE **Gerund** of a Transitive Verb has four forms, two for the Active Voice, and two for the Passive.

	Active.	*Passive*.
Present or *Continuous*	Loving.	Being loved.
Perfect ...	... Having loved.	Having been loved.

The Gerund of an Intransitive Verb has only two forms, since such verbs have no Passive voice.

Present or *Continuous*, Fading. *Perfect*, Having faded.

2. Now if you refer to the previous section, **para.** 2, you will see that the forms of the Gerund are precisely the same as those of the Participle.

Is a Gerund, then, the same thing as a Participle? By no means.

A Gerund is a Verbal *Noun*; a Participle is a Verbal *Adjective*; and so the two must never be confounded.

Another proof of the difference lies in this fact. In Old English the *forms* of the Verbal Adjective and Verbal Noun were quite distinct.

1. Verbal Adjective ... ... *Writende*.
2. Verbal Noun ... ... *Writung*.

In later English the two suffixes, *ende* and *ung*, both gradually took the forms of *ing*, and hence we have now only one form instead of two for the two parts of speech.

1. Verbal Adjective ... ... *Writing*.
2. Verbal Noun ... ... *Writing*.

N. B.—In some grammars the Verbal Noun is called a Participial Noun.

But the name *Participial noun* is unsuitable, because it is apt to mislead the student into supposing that the Verbal Noun is a kind of participle.

3. Since a Gerund is *a kind of noun*, it must be the subject to some verb (Transitive or Intransitive); or the object to some verb (Transitive); or the complement to some verb (Intransitive); or the object to some Preposition; as,

Subject to a verb. *Sleeping* is necessary to life.
Object to a verb. He enjoyed *sleeping* in the open air.
Complement to a verb. His almost constant habit was *sleeping*.
Object to a preposition. He was fond of *sleeping*.

It is clear that "sleeping" in each of the above examples, is not a Participle, or Verbal Adjective, since it does not qualify a noun or pronoun. "A sleeping cat"; here "sleeping" is a participle or verbal adjective qualifying the word cat. "He was fond of sleeping"; here "sleeping" is a Verbal Noun denoting a certain state or action.

In the following sentences say whether the words noted below are Verbal Nouns or Verbal Adjectives:—

The rice will grow well in the *coming* rains. We heard of his *coming* back to-day. Did you hear of his *having won* a prize? The boy *having won* a prize was much praised. She was fond of *being admired*. *Being admired* by all she was much pleased. The cow *having been killed* by a tiger yesterday could not be found. The boy was ashamed of *having been beaten* in class by his sister. I am tired of *doing* this work. *Doing* this work every day you will soon improve. *Spelling* is more difficult than *writing*. He was in the habit of *boasting* of his cleverness. A *boasting* man is much despised. He was pleased at *having found* his son. *Having found* his son he returned home at once. Foxes do not enjoy *being hunted*, but men enjoy *hunting* them. The fox *being hunted* fled into its hole.

4. A Verbal Noun is a double part of speech, like a Verbal Adjective. It is both a Verb and a Noun,—not a verb only, nor a noun only, but both combined.

Taking it first as a noun, to what class of noun does it belong?

It belongs always to the class of **Abstract Noun**, and may denote either some state or some action :—

State. Sleeping is good for health.
Action. Walking is good for health.

5. A Verbal Noun can be expressed by the same verb in the Infinitive Mood ; as,

Sleeping is good for health = *To sleep* is good for health.
Walking is good for health = *To walk* is good for health.

But there is this difference :—you can put a preposition before a Verbal Noun ; but you cannot put one before an Infinitive Mood :—

"I am fond of *walking*." You cannot say "I am fond of *to walk*."

Another difference is this. You can put an adjective before a Verbal Noun, for the sake of qualifying it. But if you use the Infinitive Mood and desire to qualify it in the same way, you must change the adjective into an adverb :—

(*Adjective.*) *Sound* sleeping is good for health.
(*Adverb.*) To sleep *soundly* is good for health.

6. A Verbal Noun (as you have learnt already) is not only a noun, but also a verb.

Taking it as a verb, you will find that if the verb is Transitive, it governs an object in precisely the same way as any mood or tense of the same verb can do :—

I am certain of seeing *him* to-day.
He repented of having struck *the horse*.
I am fond of reading *this book*.
He was pleased at having won a *prize*.
The horse is in the habit of pawing *the ground*.

In all these sentences the verb contained in the Verbal Noun has an object after it. Thus "seeing" is (1) a noun after the preposition *of*, and (2) it is a verb governing the object *him*. Again "having struck" is (1) a noun after the preposition *of*, and (2) it is a verb governing the object *horse*.

7. (A noun or pronoun coming before a Verbal Noun must be in the Possessive Case :—)

I was pleased at *his* coming to-day.
(It would be wrong to say, "I was pleased at *him* coming to-day.)

He was displeased at the *barber's* not coming.
(It would be wrong to say, "he was displeased at the *barber* not coming.)

It is a common mistake of Indian students to say :—"I ask *your favour* of doing this." This is not in correct idiom. The sentence should be :—"I ask the favour of *your doing* this."

Correct the mistakes in the following Sentences :—

We were surprised at him going away so soon.
I request your favour of hearing what I have to say.
We are pleased at your prospect of returning soon.
We rely on him coming back in a week's time.
I am vexed at the carpenter having done such bad work.

But the Possessive form of a noun is limited to nouns which signify *persons* or *living animals* ;(see above Chapter II., § 3, para. 6.) Hence we cannot say "I depend upon the *wall's* being built at once." But we must say "I depend upon the *wall* being built at once."

8. Sometimes the letter *a* is placed before a Verbal Noun in a prepositional sense :—

This set him *a thinking*.
The man has gone *a hunting*.
Let us go *a fishing*.

Here the *a* is a corruption or abbreviation of the preposition *on*.

§ 9.—THE CONJUGATION OF VERBS.

1. "To "conjugate" a verb is to show its chief parts.

2. The chief parts of a verb in English are the Present Tense, the Past Tense, and the Past Participle; all the other parts, Active and Passive, can be easily formed from these three.

3. There are two main kinds of Conjugation—

§ 1. The *Strong* or older kind, (now much less numerous than it once was,) which forms the past tense

by changing *the inside vowel* of the present; as, rise, rose.

§ 2. the *Weak* or new kind, (now much more numerous than the Strong,) which forms the past tense by adding *ed* or *d* or *t* to the present without any change of the inside vowel; as, love, loved.

Besides these there is a third kind, which may be called *Mixed*, being partly Weak and partly Strong.

1.—THE STRONG OR OLDER CONJUGATION.

4. The Strong Verbs are conjugated by internal changes, the nature of which is too various to be reduced to a single rule.

The most general process consists in (1) changing the inside vowel for the Past Tense, and (2) adding *en*, *n*, or *ne* for the Past Participle.

5. Formerly *all* verbs of the Strong Conjugation formed the Past Participle by adding *en*, *n*, or *ne*; but many of them have now laid aside this suffix.

Hence the Strong Verbs, as they now exist, fall into two main groups:—

(1.) Those which have retained } the *en*, *n*, or *ne*, in the
(2.) Those which have lost } Past Participle.

GROUP I.

Present Tense.	*Past Tense.*	*Past Participle.*
Arise	arose	arisen.
Bear (bring forth)	bore	born.
Bear (carry) ...	bore	borne.
Beget	begot, begat ...	begotten, begot.
Bid...	bade, bid	bidden, bid.
Bite	bit	bitten, bit.
Bind	bound	* bounden, bound.
Blow	blew	blown.
Break	broke	broken.
Chide	chid	chidden, chid.
Choose	chose	chosen.
Cleave (split) ...	clove, cleft ...	cloven, cleft.
Crow	crew, crowed ...	crown, crowed.

GROUP I—*Contd.*

Present Tense.	*Past Tense.*	*Past Participle.*
Draw	drew	drawn.
Drink	drank	* drunken, drunk.
Drive	drove or drave ...	driven.
Eat	ate	eaten.
Fall	fell	fallen.
Fly	flew...	flown
Forbear	forbore	forborn.
Forget	forgot	forgotten.
Forsake	forsook	forsaken.
Freeze	froze	frozen.
Get	got	* gotten, got.
Give	gave	given.
Go, wend	went	gone.
Grow	grew	grown.
Hide	hid	hidden, hid.
Know	knew	known.
Lie	lay	lain.
Ride	rode...	ridden.
Rise	rose...	risen.
See	saw	seen.
Shake	shook	shaken.
Shrink	shrank	* shrunken, shrunk.
Sink	sank	* sunken, sunk.
Slay	slew	slain.
Slide	slid	slidden, slid.
Smite	smote	smitten, smit.
Speak	spoke	spoken.
Steal	stole	stolen.
Stride	strode	stridden.
Strike	struck	* stricken, struck.
Strive	strove	striven.
Swear	swore	sworn.
Take	took	taken.
Tear	tore	torn.
Thrive	throve, thrived ...	thriven, thrived.
Throw	threw	thrown.
Tread	trod	trodden, trod.
Weave	wove	woven.
Write	wrote	written.
Wear	wore	worn.

Note.—The six participles marked * are now chiefly used as Verbal Adjectives only, and not as parts of some Tense:—

Verbal Adjective.	*Part of some Tense.*
Our *bounden* duty	... He was *bound* by his promise.
A *drunken* man	... He had *drunk* much wine.

Verbal Adjective.		*Part of some Tense.*
A *sunken* ship	...	The ship had *sunk* under the water.
A *stricken* deer	...	The deer was *struck* with an arrow.
The *shrunken* stream	..	The stream has *shrunk* in its bed.
Ill-*gotten* wealth	...	He has *got* his wealth by ill means.

GROUP II.

Present Tense.	*Past Tense.*	*Past Participle.*
Abide	abode	abode.
Awake	awoke	awoke.
Become	became	become.
Begin	began	begun.
Behold	beheld	beheld.
Cling	clung	clung.
Come	came	come.
Dig	dug	dug.
Fight	fought	fought.
Find	found	found.
Fling	flung	flung.
Grind	ground	ground.
Hang (*Intransitive*) * ...	hung	hung.
Hold	held	held.
Ring	rang	rung.
Run	ran	run.
Shine	shone	shone.
Sing	sang	sung.
Sit	sat	sat.
Sling	slung	slung.
Slink	slunk	slunk.
Spin	spun	spun.
Spring	sprang, sprung ...	sprung.
Stand	stood	stood.
Stave	stove, staved ...	stove, staved.
Sting	stung	stung.
Stick	stuck	stuck.
Stink	stank	stunk.
String	strung	strung.
Swim	swam	swum.
Swing	swung	swung.
Win	won	won.
Wind	wound	wound.
Wring	wrung	wrung.

* The *Transitive* Verb is conjugated in the Weak or new form:—hang, hanged, hanged.

2.—THE MIXED CONJUGATION.

6. Verbs of *Mixed* Conjugation fall into two main groups :—

(1.) Those which (like Weak Verbs) form the Past Tense and the Past Participle by adding *d* or *t* to the present, but (like Strong Verbs) change the inside vowel; as, "seek, *sought*, *sought*."

(2.) Those which (like Weak Verbs) form the Past Tense in *d* or *t* without changing the inside vowel, but (like Strong Verbs) form the Past Participle by adding *en* or *n*; as show, show*ed*, show*n*.

GROUP I.

	Present Tense.	*Past Tense.*	*Past Participle.*
	Beseech	besought	besought.
	Bring	brought	brought.
	Buy	bought	bought.
	Catch	caught	caught.
	Seek	sought	sought.
	Sell	sold	sold.
	Teach	taught	taught.
	Tell	told	told.
	Think	thought	thought.
	Work	wrought or worked	wrought or worked.
	Owe	ought, owed ...	owed.
	Dare	durst or dared ...	dared.
Auxiliary.	Can	could	*wanting.*
	Shall	should	*wanting.*
	Will	would	*wanting.*
	May	might	*wanting.*

GROUP II.

Beat	beat	beaten.
Do	did (*irregular*) ...	done.
Grave	* graved.	graven, graved.
Hew	hewed	hewn.
Lade	laded	laden.
Melt	melted	* molten, melted.
Mow	mowed	mown.

Present Tense.	*Past Tense.*	*Past Participle.*
Rive	rived	riven.
Seethe	seethed	* solden, seethed.
Shave	shaved	shaven.
Shear	sheared	shorn.
Sow	sowed	sown.
Swell	swelled	swollen.
Show	showed	shown.
Sew	sewed	sewn.
Rot	rotted	* rotten, rotted.
Strew	strewed	strewn, or strown
Prove	proved	† proven, proved
Saw	sawed	sawn.
Shape	shaped	† shapen, shaped
Writhe	writhed	† writhen, writhed.

Note 1.—The participles marked * "are now chiefly used as Verbal Adjectives, and not as parts of some Tense:—

Verbal Adjective.	*Part of some Tense.*
A *graven* image	... The image was *engraved* with letters.
A *molten* image	... The image was *melted* with heat.
A *rotten* plank	... The plank was *rotted* by water.
The *sodden* flesh	... The flesh was *seethed* in hot water.

Note 2.—The participles marked † are now seldom seen except in poetry.

3.—THE WEAK OR NEW CONJUGATION.

7. All verbs, except those shown in the preceding lists belong to the Weak or New Conjugation.

Hence verbs of the Weak or New Conjugation are much more numerous than those of the Strong; and the tendency in English is to discard the old formation in favor of the new.

8. In the Weak Conjugation there is no changing of the inside vowel for the Past Tense, and no adding of *en* or *n* for the Past Participle. The only thing to be done for forming the Past Tense and the Past Participle is to add *ed* to the Present Tense.

But the mode of adding this suffix is not uniform; and the two rules, given below, should be observed :—

(1.) If the verb ends in *e*, then *d* only is added, and not *ed*; as,

> *Live*, *lived* (not *liveed*.)
> *Clothe*, *clothed* (not *clotheed*.)

To this rule there is no exception.

(2.) The final consonant is doubled before *ed*, provided (*a*) that the final consonant is *single*, (*b*) that it is *accented*, (*c*) that it is preceded by a *single vowel*; as :—

> *Fan*, *fanned* (not *faned*); *drop dropped* (not *droped*.)
> *Compel*, *compelled*; *control*, *controlled*.

But in a verb like *lengthen*, where the accent is not on the last syllable, the Past Tense is *lengthened*; in a verb like *boil*, where the vowel is not single, the Past Tense is *boiled*; and in a verb like *fold*, where the last consonant is not single, the Past Tense is *folded*.

To this rule there is one, and only one, exception; namely, the final *l*. The final *l* is doubled, even when it is not accented; as, travel, *travelled* (not *traveled*.) But the final *l* is not doubled, if it has two vowels going before it; as, *travail*, *travailed* (not *travailled*.)

9. The *sounding* or pronouncing of the *ed* is not uniform; and the Weak Verbs may be sub-divided into three different groups according to the sound of *ed*.

Group I, in which the *ed* is sounded as *ed*, that is, as a distinct syllable.

Group II, in which the *ed* is sounded simply as *d*, and is not a distinct syllable.

Group III, in which the *ed* is sounded (and sometimes even spelt) as *t*, and is not a distinct syllable.

To these three groups a fourth must be added, in which the *ed* is cut out, and consequently has no sound at all.

GROUP I.

10. Here the *ed* is sounded as *ed*; as, *end, ended*; *lift lifted.*

All verbs of this group end in *d, de, t*, or *te*; and when you add *ed* or *d* to any such verbs, you find it impossible to sound the suffix in any other way than as a distinct syllable,—*ed.*

(*a.*) *Give the Past Tense and the Past Participle of the following verbs*:—Act, part, grant, fold, heat, cede, trade, adopt, adapt, float, mount, post, paint, shunt, aid, compete, mend, found, bound, suspect, protest, recant, insert, concoct, inflict, inflect, collect, connect, intend, ascend, blend, blind, hunt, blunt, stunt, point, relent, resort, twist, enlist, proceed, precede, retract, melt, yield, sport, prevent, convert, bleat, assent, demand, object, shift, drift, except, depict, insist, conduct, infest, exhaust, exhort, import, impart, request, corrupt, convict, assist, assert, invent, contract, suspend, exert, exhort, hoist, jest, adjust, halt.

(*b.*) Give the Past Tense and Past Participle of :—pat, blot, fit, squat, quit, plot, plod, nod, trot, allot, strut, chat, pet, net, mat, knot, whet, wet, fret, rot, spot, knit.

Explain why the final consonant is doubled before *ed* in examples (*b*) and why it is not doubled in examples (*a*.)

GROUP II.

11. Here the *ed* is not sounded as *ed*, but as *d*; and so a new syllable is not added to the verb; as, *drag, dragged* =*dragd*; *call, called*=*calld.*

(*a.*) *All* verbs ending in a soft or flat consonant (*b, g, r, v, th, z*, and *se* sounded as *z*,) and all verbs ending in the vowel *e* preceded by any of these consonants, belong to this group.

Give the Past Tense and Past Participle of:—grab, rob, rub, tug, hang (Transitive,) fare, shudder, stir, save, curve, relieve, judge, rage, wedge, clothe, seize, squeeze, praise, please, rouse, cause, use, cleave (in the sense of *stick*.)

Exceptional verbs: —have, had; hear, heard.

Other exceptional verbs:—bereave, bereft (not bereaved); leave, left (not leaved); cleave (in the sense of *split*,) cleft, (not cleaved); lose, lost, (not *losed*.)

(*b.*) Most verbs, *not all*, ending in *l*, *m*, or *n*, **belong to** this group.

Spell the Past Tense and Past Participle of:—fill, kill, boil, call, roll, twinkle, condemn, spurn, drown, hem, pen, toil, sail, fail, haul, travail, broil, complain, refrain, abstain, stream, wean, shorten, lengthen, darken, thicken, blacken, fashion, threaten, fasten, gladden, plan, tan, din, appal, control, compel, travel, trammel.

(*c.*) All verbs ending in double vowels, or in silent *gh* preceded by a double vowel, belong to this group.

Give the Past Tense and Past Participle of:—play, pray, obey, prey, neigh, enjoy, awe, gnaw, convey, betray, plough, low, bellow, follow, stew, stray, weigh, claw.

Exceptional verbs:—die, died, dead; shoe, shod, shod; flee, fled, fled.

Four verbs of this group spell the Past Tense and Past Participle in a peculiar way:—say, said, (not sayed); lay, laid, (not layed); pay, paid, (not payed.)

(*d.*) Verbs ending simply in *y* change the *y* into *i*, when *ed* is added; as, try, tried; dry, dried; marry, married.

GROUP III.

12. Here the "ed" is not sounded as *ed* but as *t*; and so a new syllable is not added to the verb; as *drop*, *dropped* = *dropt.*

(*a.*) All verbs ending in a hard or sharp consonant, (*f*, *ph* and *gh* = *f*, *k*, *p*, *s*, *x*, *ch*, *sh*,) or in the vowel *e* preceded by any of these, belong to this group.

Give the Past Tense and Past Participle of:—stuff, quaff, laugh, triumph, lock, ache, block, stamp, step, hope, hop, guess, entice, mix, snatch, touch, quench, lash, wish, roof, chafe, pack, peck, pick, pluck, rake, stake, like, joke, leak, sneak, reek, look, lurk, work, streak, wreck, walk, talk, stroke, poke, yoke, shock, knock, lick, rock, limp, jump, romp, thump, bump, stump, step, stripe, wipe, shape, grasp, help, lop, stop, stoop, whip, slip, drip, dip, drop, mop, press, amass, possess, kiss, hiss, toss, grace, face, lace, loose, perplex, release, cross, distress, caress, dress, beach, bleach, wrench, fetch, stitch, notch, blotch, latch, match, clutch, stretch, watch, reach, pitch, carp, push, flush, smash, quash, thrash, squash, cough, crash.

Point out all the verbs in the above list, in which the final consonant is doubled before *ed*.

Exceptional verbs:—make, made, made.

(*b*.) Some verbs of this class shorten the vowel in the Past Tense and spell the *ed* as *t*;

Present Tense.	*Past Tense.*	*Past Participle.*
Creep ...	crept ...	... crept.
Sleep ...	slept ...	... slept.
Sweep ...	swept ...	... swept.
Keep ...	kept ...	... kept.
Weep ...	wept ..	... wept.

(*c*.) Some verbs ending in *l*, *m*, or *n* shorten the vowel, in the past tense and past participle, and change the *ed* into *t*:—

Present Tense.	*Past Tense.*	*Past Participle.*
Burn ...	burnt ...	... burnt.
Deal ..	dealt ...	... dealt.
Dream ...	dreamt (or dreamed)	dreamt (or dreamed.)
Dwell ...	dwelt ...	... dwelt.
Feel ...	felt ...	... felt.
Kneel ...	knelt ...	... knelt.
Smell ...	smelt ...	... smelt.
Spell ...	spelt ...	... spelt.
Lean ...	leant (or leaned) ...	leant (or leaned.)
Mean ...	meant ...	... meant.
Spill ...	spilt ...	... spilt.
Spoil ...	spoilt (or spoiled) ...	spoilt (or spoiled.)

GROUP IV.

This group consists of verbs, which have discarded the *ed* altogether.

All the verbs in this group end in *d* or *t* in the Present; and this is why they have discarded the *ed* in the Past.

(*a*.) Some verbs in this group have the three forms (Present Tense, Past Tense, and Past Participle) all exactly alike:—

Present Tense.	*Past Tense.*	*Past Participle.*
Burst ...	burst ...	... burst.
Cast ...	cast ...	.. cast.
Cost ...	cost ...	... cost.
Cut ...	cut ...	... cut.
Hit ...	hit ...	... hit.
Hurt ...	hurt ...	... hurt.

	Present Tense.	Past Tense.	Past Participle.
	Let	let	let.
	Put	put	put.
	Rid	rid	rid.
	Set	set	set.
	Shed	shed	shed.
	Shred	shred	shred.
	Shut	shut	shut.
	Slit	slit	slit.
	Spit	spit or spat	spit.
	Split	split	split.
	Spread	spread	spread.
	Sweat	sweat	sweat.
	Thrust	thrust	thrust.
Two forms.	Bet	bet or betted	bet or betted.
	Quit	quit or quitted	quit or quitted.
	Wed	wed or wedded	wed or wedded.
	Knit	knit or knitted	knit or knitted.

(*b.*) Other verbs in this group end in *d* in the Present Tense, but form the Past Tense and Past Participle by changing *d* into *t*. (There are nine such verbs in English.)

Present Tense.	Past Tense.	Past Participle.
Bend	bent	bent.
Build	built	built.
Gild	gilt	gilt.
Gird	girt	girt.
Lend	lent	lent.
Rend	rent	rent.
Send	sent	sent.
Spend	spent	spent.
Wend	went	*wanting.*

(*c.*) Other verbs of this group have the three forms all alike except that they shorten the vowel in the Past Tense and Past Participle:—

Present Tense.	Past Tense.	Past Participle.
Bleed	bled	bled.
Breed	bred	bred.
Feed	fed	fed.
Speed	sped	sped.
Meet	met	met.
Lead	led	led.
Read	read	read.
Light	lit, lighted	lit, lighted.
Shoot	shot	shot.

§ 10.—AUXILIARY AND DEFECTIVE VERBS.

THOSE verbs are said to be *Auxiliary*, which *help* other verbs to form their tenses and moods or to express some special shade of meaning.

Those verbs are said to be *Defective*, which are *deficient* or wanting in some of their parts; that is, have not the full number of moods or tenses.

The same verb is often both Auxiliary and Defective, as will be seen from the following :—

1.—BE.

		Singular.			*Plural.*
		1	2	3	1 2 3
Present.	*Indic.*	am	art	is	are.
	Subjunc.	be	be	be	be.
Past.	*Indic.*	was	wast	was	were.
	Subjunc.	were	wert	were	were.

Infin.	*Imperative.*	*Pres. Part.*	*Perfect Part.*
To be	be	being	having been.

This verb is used in three different senses :—

(*a.*) In the sense of mere existence :

God *is* = God exists.

There *are* many men, who, &c., = Many men exist who, &c.

(*b.*) As an Intransitive Verb of Incomplete Predication. (See § 1, para. 13) :—

A horse *is* a four-legged animal.

This coat *was* of many colors.

(*c.*) As an Auxiliary Verb :—

All the tenses in Passive Verbs and all the Continuous Tenses in Active ones are formed by the help of the verb *to be*.

2.—HAVE.

		Singular.			Plural.
		1	2	3	1, 2, 3
Present.	Indic.	have	hast	has	have.
	Subjunc.	have	have	have	have.
Past.	Indic.	had	hadst	had	had.
	Subjunc.	had	hadst	had	had.

Infin.	Imper.	Pres. Part.	Perfect Part.
To have	have	having	having had.

This verb is used in two different senses :—

(a.) As a Transitive Verb, denoting possession. In this sense it is declined regularly in all its moods and tenses :—

We have (=we possess) 4 cows and 20 sheep.

(b.) As an Auxiliary Verb :—

All the Perfect Tenses, in all the Moods, Active and Passive, are formed by the help of this verb.

3.—SHALL.

	Singular.			Plural.
	1	2	3	1 2 3
Pres.	shall	shalt	shall	shall.
Past.	should	shouldst	should	should.

There are no other tenses, and there is no Infinitive Mood to this verb. It is used in three different senses :—

(a.) As an Auxiliary Verb, in a merely *Future* sense :—

The *first* person of the Future Indicative is formed by *shall*, and any person of the Subjunctive can be formed by *should* ; as "I shall go," "if he should go." (See § 4, para. 13, (a). and § 6.)

(b.) As an Auxiliary Verb, in the sense of *command* :—

In the *second* and *third* persons of the Future Indicative *shall* implies a command, as "thou *shalt* not steal." (See above § 4, para. 13, (b.)

(c.) As an Auxiliary Verb, in the sense of *duty* :—

"Should," and not "shall," is used in the sense of duty. (See above § 5, para. 8.)

Present I *should* do (=it is my duty to) do this.

Past I *should have done* this, (it was my duty to do this, but I neglected to do it.)

4.—WILL.

	Singular.			*Plural.*
	1	2	3.	1 2 3.
Present.	will	wilt	will	will.
Past.	would willed	wouldst willedst	would willed	would. willed.

Infin.	*Imperative.*	*Present Part.*	*Perfect Part.*
To will	...	willing	having willed.

This verb is used in several different senses :—

(a) As an Auxiliary Verb in a merely *Future* sense.

The *second* and *third* persons of the Future Indicative are formed by *will*; and any person of the Subjunctive can be formed by *would*.

(See above § 4, para. 13 (a.), and § 6, para. 6.)

(a.) As an Auxiliary Verb in the sense of *intend*; see above § 4, para. 13 (c.)

I *will* not steal = I do not intend to steal.

To will is present with me; but what I *will* (=wish or intend to do) I do not, and what I *will not*, that I do.

—*New Testament.*

(c.) As an Auxiliary Verb *would* is used in the sense of *habit*. In this sense it must be parsed as a Past Indicative; for it has no connection in this sense with the Subjunctive Mood. (See above § 5, para. 9.)

He *would* come (=was in the habit of coming) every day.

(d.) As an Independent Transitive Verb in the sense of leaving property by a written document or "will." In this sense the Past Tense is *willed*, and not *would*.

He *willed* (=decided by his written will or testament,) that all his property should go to his daughter.

5.—DO.

	Singular.			Plural.
	1	2	3.	1 2 3.
Present.	do	dost	does	do.
Past.	did	didst	did	did.

Infinitive.	*Imperative.*	*Present Part.*	*Perfect Part.*
To do	do	doing.	having done.

This verb is used in two different senses.

(*a.*) As an Independent Transitive Verb in the sense of "perform." In this sense it is declined regularly in all its moods and tenses:—

> It will be a year, before you can *do* this.
> I am now *doing* what you *have done* already.

(*b.*) As an Auxiliary Verb, declined only in the Present and Past Tenses:—

> *Do* and *did* are used as auxiliaries to the Present and Past Tenses, Indicative, of other verbs for the sake of *emphasis*, for the sake of using a *negative*, and for the sake of *asking a question*:—(See examples given in § 3, para. 10.)
>
> *Do* is also used in colloquial English to give force to the Imperative Mood in an *affirmative* sense. (See § 4, para. 4.) *Do* is always used, when the Imperative is preceded by "*not*"; as, "*Do not* steal."

6.—MAY.

	Singular.			Plural.
	1	2	3.	1 2 3
Present.	may	mayest	may	may.
Past.	might	mightest	might	might.

This verb is used in three different senses :—

(*a*.) In the sense of permission :—
You *may* leave (=are permitted to leave) the room.

(*b*) In the sense of possibility :—
I *might* (=I could) do it, if I tried.
The rains *may* yet come (=perhaps the rains will yet come).
May be (=it may be, or perhaps) you will succeed after all.

(*c*) In the sense of a wish :—
May heaven (= I pray or wish that heaven will) protect thee.

7.—CAN.

	Singular.			*Plural.*
	1	2	3	1 2 3
Present.	Can	canst	can	can.
Past.	Could	couldst	could	could.

This verb is used in two different senses :—

(*a*) In the sense of permission :—
You can (=are permitted to) *go or not, as you like.*

(*b*) In the sense of power or ability :—
He *cannot* (=is unable to) run as fast as you.
He *could* (=is able to) do this, if he tried.

Note.—The verbs *may* and *can* are always auxiliary, that is, they never stand alone as independent verbs. Hence in some grammars they are said to constitute a separate mood, which is called the *Potential*. But nothing is gained by adding to the present number of moods.

8.—OUGHT.

	Singular.			*Plural.*
Present or Past.	1	2	3	1 2 3
	Ought	oughtest	ought	ought.

This verb is, in its origin, the Past Tense of the verb *owe*; as, "you *ought* (=owed) him a thousand pounds," In modern

English the form "ought" is used only in the sense of *duty* and stands equally for past and present time.

Present. You ought *to do* this; (and you are expected to do it.)
Past. You ought *to have done* this; (but you did not do it.)

9.—MUST.

This verb has now no varieties of form.

It is, in its origin, the Past Tense of an old verb *motan*, "to be obliged," which is now obsolete.

"Must" now relates, not to past, but to Present or Future time, and is used in three different senses :—

(*a.*) In the sense of necessity or *compulsion* :—
What *must* come, *must*.
We *must* eat, or we shall die.

(*b.*) In the sense of a very strong *intention* :—
I *must* finish this, before I go.

(*c.*) In the sense of *certainty* :—
He *must* be dead by this time.

10.—DARE.

	Singular.			*Plural.*
	1	2	3	1 2 3
Present.	dare	darest	dare / dares	dare.
Past.	durst / dared	durst / dared	durst / dared	durst. / dared.

Infin.	*Imper.*	*Pres. Part.*	*Perfect Part.*
To dare	dare	daring	having dared.

This verb is used in two senses :—

(*a.*) As a verb of Incomplete Predication in the sense of *having courage*; and in this sense the present Singular is "dare," and not "dares":—

He *dare* not (=has not the courage to) leave the room.

In the same sense "durst" is used for the Past Tense, and not "dared":—

He *durst* not (=had not the courage to) leave the room.

The idiom "I dare say" simply means "perhaps."

(*b*.) As a Transitive Verb in the sense of *challenging*. When the verb is used in this sense, it is declined regularly in all the moods and tenses:

He *dares* me (=challenges me) to fight.
He *dared* me (=challenged me) to my face.

11.—QUOTH.

This Verb is the Past Tense of an old verb, which is now obsolete except in the compound form of *be-queath*.

It means "says," or "said," and therefore stands equally for Past and Present time. It is used only in the Third Person and only in the Singular Number. It always stands *before* its Subject.

"Let me not live," *quoth* he. —*Shakspeare.*

12.—NEED.

This is sometimes an Independent Verb, signifying "require," "want." As an Independent Verb, it is declined regularly in all its moods and tenses.

Sometimes it is a Dependent or Auxiliary Verb. In this case the Third Person Singular is *need*, and not *needs*, just as *dare* (in the auxiliary sense) is used for *dares*.

He *need* not (=is under no necessity to) do any more work.

In such an idiom as "he must *needs* do this," *needs* is really a Possessive Case, with the apostrophe before the *s* omitted. So *needs*=need's=of need=of necessity=necessarily. *Needs* has therefore become an Adverb or Adverbial Phrase.

13.—WORTH.

This verb occurs in such a phrase as "woe *worth* the day," which equals "woe be to the day." The noun day is in the Objective Case.

Worth is here the Third Person, Singular, Subjunctive, of an Obsolete Verb signifying "to be" or "to become."

14.—WIT.

This verb signifies "to know." Only a few of its forms have survived; the rest have become obsolete.

(*a.*) The Infinitive form *to wit*, in the sense of "namely." This is much used in legal documents at the present day :—

He left me by will all his land, *to wit*, the three farms.

(*b.*) The Present Participle has survived in the negative adverbial form of *unwittingly*, which means "unknowingly" or "unintentionally."

You cannot blame him for this, since he did it *unwittingly*.

(*c.*) In the *Present Indicative it occurs in the form of wot*, and in the Past Indicative in the form of *wist*; but these are almost obsolete.

Present. He *wot* neither what he babbles nor what he means.
—*Tyndal.*
Past. They *wist* not what had become of him.
—*New Testament.*

15.—BEWARE.

Every part of this verb is now obsolete, except the Imperative and Infinitive Moods.

Imperative. *Beware* of false prophets. —*New Testament.*
Infinitive. He told them to *beware* of false prophets.

§ 11.—IMPERSONAL VERBS.

VERBS are said to be **Impersonal**, or to be used impersonally, when they take "it" for their subject, and are followed by some Personal Pronoun in the Objective Case :—

It shames *me* to hear this=I am ashamed to hear this.
It repents *me* of my folly=I repent of my folly.
It behoves *me* to do this=I ought to do this.

There are 3 instances in which the *it* is omitted, and the pronoun in the Objective Case is placed *before* the verb instead of after it :—

Methinks=it thinks me=I think.
Meseems=it seems to me.
Melists=it seems to me, or it pleases me.

The following phrase is elliptical :—

So *please* your Majesty. —*Shakspeare.*

This means, "If *it* so please your Majesty;" that is, "if your Majesty so please or so desire."

CHAPTER VI.—ADVERBS.

§ 1.—DEFINITION AND CLASSIFICATION OF ADVERBS.

1. AN **Adverb** (according to the definition usually given) qualifies a Verb, an Adjective, or other Adverb; as, "An *almost* black snake crept *very silently* through the grass."

Here *almost* qualifies the adjective "black"; *silently* qualifies the verb "crept," and *very* qualifies the adverb "silently."

N. B.—Under "Adjectives" we of course include *Participles* or "*Verbal Adjectives*."

2. But this definition is not sufficient. For an Adverb can qualify *Prepositions* and *Conjunctions*, and not merely Verbs, Adjectives, or other Adverbs:—

(*a.*) **Prepositions :—**

The bird flew *exactly over* the sleeper's head.
Far from the world, O Lord, I flee.
He paid the money *quite up* to date.
This mistake was made *entirely through* your fault.
He was sitting *almost outside* the door.
He arrived *long before* the time.
The bird flew *a little above* his head.
He found out his mistake *long after* the event.
He wept *partly through* sorrow and *partly through* anger.
Right against the eastern gate.
Where the sun begins his state. —*Milton.*

(*b.*) **Conjunctions :—**

We stand now *exactly where* we were.
A man is truly happy, *only when* he is in sound health.
I dislike this place, *simply because* the air is too hot.
I wish to know *precisely how* it happened.
They locked the door, *shortly before* the thieves came.
The watch was found, *long after* the thieves had been caught.
I will do this, *only if* you promise to do that.

It is evident, therefore, that an Adverb can qualify any part of speech except a Noun or Pronoun.

Note 1.—When an adverb is placed before a noun, as "the *then* king," the adverb does not qualify the noun "king," but some participle which is understood, "as the *then reigning* king." This has been explained already in Chapter III, § 2, para. 3.

Note 2.—Sometimes an adverb is *compounded* with a noun so as to make a *single* word. The adverb in such cases does not qualify the noun, as an adjective would do, but is attached to the noun, and a hyphen is placed between them, so as to make a compound word :—

A by-path = a path at one side.
A by-law = a local or minor law.
A through-carriage = a carriage which goes through all the stations without being changed.
A fore-taste = a previous taste.
An after-taste = a taste coming after the first one.
The after-life = the life coming after the present one.
An after-crop = a second crop.
Fore-thought = a thought perceived beforehand.
An after-thought = a thought perceived after a previous one.
An out-house = a little building apart from a large one.
An out-office, out-station, &c.

Note 3.—In the "Manual of English for Matriculation Candidates," Mr. Sheppard says, (p. 28, Ed. 1890,) that an adverb can qualify a Pronoun; and he gives as his example, "I am, *yours truly* or *truly yours*." This appears to me to be wrong. The adverb "truly" in this place does not qualify the pronoun, but the *possessive relation*, that is, *the preposition* implied in the Possessive Case of the pronoun. "I am *altogether of* that opinion," "I am *truly* yours or *of* you." Here the adverb in each case qualifies the preposition "of"; it does not qualify either the noun "opinion" or the pronoun "you." "Most men were *decidedly against* you, but I was *entirely* and *cordially for* you." Here the adverb "decidedly" qualifies the preposition "against," and the adverbs "entirely" and "cordially" qualify the preposition "for"; none of them qualifies the pronoun "you." We might put the adjective or participle "opposed" in the place of the preposition "against"; and the

sentence would then be, "Most men were *decidedly opposed* to you." In this case the adverb "decidedly" qualifies the adjective "opposed," just as in the previous sentence it qualified the preposition "against." Again, we might put "attached to you" in the place of the possessive "yours or of you"; and the sentence would then be, "I am *truly attached* to you." In this case the adverb "truly" qualifies the adjective or participle "attached," just as in the previous sentence it qualified the possessive relation or the preposition "of" implied in "yours."

Note 4.—The same writer in the same page says that an adverb can qualify a Noun. Here too he has, I think, fallen into an error. He gives as his example :—"I study *only* English." Here "only" should be parsed as an adjective, as in the sentence, "He is my only son." Here "only" means "one, alone." "He is the *one* son that I have." "English is the *one* language that I study."

The fact then remains, that *an adverb cannot qualify a noun or pronoun*; but of course, if we put a preposition before the noun or pronoun, or (what is the same thing) put the noun or pronoun into the Possessive Case, the state of things is entirely altered: the adverb then qualifies the preposition or rather the relation implied in the preposition. In fact the noun combined with its preposition becomes "a prepositional phrase," and a prepositional phrase has the same force as an adjective; and an adjective can of course be qualified by an adverb.

3. **Adverbs can be arranged under seven different heads, according to their meaning—**

- (1.) **Adverbs of State, Quality, or Manner.**
- (2.) **Adverbs of Quantity or Degree.**
- (3.) **Adverbs of Number or Order.**
- (4.) **Adverbs of Time.**
- (5.) **Adverbs of Place.**
- (6.) **Adverbs of Affirming or Denying.**

The *seventh* class consists of Interrogative Adverbs, that is, adverbs used for asking questions about quality, quantity, number, time, &c.

§ 2.—IDIOMATIC USES OF ADVERBS.

Adverbs of State, Quality, or Manner.

1. ADVERBS of this class are found by asking *in what state* or *of what quality* a thing is, or *in what manner* a thing is done.

Adverbs of this class are much more numerous than those of any other, and most of them are formed by adding *ly* to the corresponding adjective :—

> He did it *wisely*. He did it *so* or *thus* (in this way) We all did it *alike* (in the same way) We did it *together* He spoke *sadly*. He walks *softly* He lives *prudently*.

Adverbs of Quantity or Degree.

2. Adverbs of **Quantity** or **Degree** are found by asking *to what extent* or *to what degree* a thing is done

> He is *quite* strong again. He is *almost* strong again. He is *rather* sick. He is *very* sick. We have talked *enough* The air is *too* hot. We are *much* pleased. We are *rather* or *somewhat* pleased. We are *entirely* pleased. We are *half* pleased and *half* vexed. We are *a little* pleased He spoke those words *partly* in sorrow and *partly* in anger. This food is *far* the best. He is *hardly* or *scarcely* strong yet

3. Much, Very :—

(*a*) "Much" qualifies adjectives or adverbs in the *Comparative* Degree. "Very" qualifies them in the *Positive* Degree :—

> The air is *much hotter* to-day than yesterday.
> We travelled *much more cheaply* than he did.
> The air of this place is *very pleasant*.
> We travelled *quickly*, but not *very cheaply*.

(*b*.) For Qualifying *Participles*, "much" is more commonly used than "very" :—

> I was *much surprised* at hearing the news.
> I am *much pleased* with your industry.

(*c*) For emphasizing the *Superlative* Degree of Adjec-

tives "much" and "very" can both be used with the Definite Article, but the order of the words is not the same.

Much the smallest. *The very* smallest.
Much the longest. *The very* longest.

Correct any mistakes in the Adverbs in the following sentences, and show where the mistake lies :—

> I am very astonished at what you tell me. He explained his meaning much cleverly. Of these two houses yours is the much largest. He is a much industrious student. He has worked very harder than you have done. You are very more industrious than you were last year. I am much happy at hearing these good news The air is very hotter to-day than yesterday.

Note 1.—"Much," besides being an Adverb, is sometimes an Adjective. Whenever it is an Adjective, it qualifies some Material Noun or some Abstract Noun, and this noun is always in the Singular Number. (See above, Chapter III., § 1, para. 6); as, "much bread," "much labour."

Note 2.—"Very" is sometimes used as an Adjective, in the sense of "true, actual, itself" :—

> This is *the very* man that I wanted to see
> He came at *that very* instant.

Note 3.—"Very" as an Adverb is often used to qualify "much" :—

> His work is *very much* better than yours

Point out the parts of speech of *much* and *very* in the following sentences :—

> He was taken *very* ill on the *very* day of his arrival.
> *Much* study is a weariness of the flesh.
> They found *much* gold in Southern India, and the workmen were *much* pleased.
> The *very* thing you ask for is what all men would be *very* glad to have.
> *Much* sun and rain produce a *very* fine crop.
> It is *very* strange that you should be so *much* surprised.

4. Too :—

The Adverb "too" denotes some kind of *excess*. It means "*more than enough*." It implies that some limit

or rule exists for a certain purpose, and that *this limit has been exceeded* :—

> He thinks his pay *too* small for his work: (=smaller than it ought to be for the work that he does.)
>
> We must not bathe here; the water is *too* deep: (=deeper than it should be for us to bathe in.)
>
> The sun to-day is *too* hot for a midday walk: (=hotter than is suitable for a midday walk)

Note 1.—It is a very common mistake in India to use "too" instead of "very" in qualifying adjectives or adverbs. "Very" simply denotes a *high degree of anything*; but "too" denotes that the *proper degree has been transgressed or exceeded.*

Correct the following :—

> My son's progress has been *too* great. Sugar is *too* sweet. I am *too* happy to see you again. A ripe mango is *too* good. He writes *too* neatly, and spells *too* accurately. The milk of a cow is *too* wholesome. The water of this river is *too* pure. The roof of this house is *too* safe, and it shuts out the rain *too* well.

Note 2.—"Too," besides being an *Adverb* of Quantity denoting excess, is sometimes a *Conjunction* signifying "*also.*" As a Conjunction it stands *after* the word to which it belongs; as, "He *too* (=he also) is fond of work;" "the tiger climbs, and *swims too.*" But observe that whenever it is used as an Adverb, it stands *before* the word to which it belongs, as in the examples shown above.

Point out the part of speech of *too* in each of the following sentences :—

> He is *too* honest to accept a bribe. That sight was *too* dreadful to be seen He and his brother *too* were industrious students Drinking water cannot be *too* clean. Water is good to drink, and milk *too* is a wholesome drink. Be not *too* eager for praise; most men are praised and rewarded *too* according to their deserts.

5. **Enough** :—

The meaning of "enough" is the opposite to that of "too." "Enough" signifies that the *proper limit or amount has been reached*; but "too" means "more than enough," that is, that the proper limit has been exceeded.

Whenever "enough" is used as an Adverb, it is placed *after* the word that it qualifies:—

> The air to-day is *cold enough* for me, (=is as cold as I wish it to be.)
> Your pay is *high enough* for your work, (=is as high as it should be for your work.)
> The horses are tired: we have ridden *far enough* to-day, (=as far as is proper for our horses.)
> He is now *strong enough* to leave his bed, (=as strong as he should be for leaving his bed)

Note.—"Enough," besides being an Adverb of Quantity, can be also an Adjective of Quantity or an Adjective of Number; (See above, Chapter III., § 1, para. 5 and para 11); as, "He had *enough bread*." (Adjective of Quantity.) "He had *enough loaves* of bread. (Adjective of Number.)

Observe, that, whenever "enough" is an *adjective*, it is placed *before* the word it qualifies, but whenever it is an *adverb* it is placed *after* it.

6 Little; a little:—

This is a marked difference in the meanings of those two adverbs, and this difference must be clearly understood.

(*a.*) "**Little**" is used in a *Negative* sense and means "*not much*"; in fact it is a weak form of "*not*," and is almost purely Negative:—

> I *little* expected that he would succeed so well:
> (I did *not* expect that he would succeed so well.)

(*b*) "**A little**" is always used in an *Affirmative* sense and means "*to some extent at least, slightly, somewhat.*"

> He was *a little* (slightly, somewhat) tired.
> Are you tired? Yes; I am *a little* tired.

Note 1.—The adverb "a little" has come into use from the habitual omission of some noun that is understood after the adjective "little." Hence "a little" is an adverbial phrase rather than a pure adverb. In the adverbial phrase "a great deal" the noun has been retained; while in the corresponding adverbial phrase "a little" the noun has been dropped.

Note 2.—Observe that the *negative* meaning of "little" answers to the *negative* meaning of "few"; while the *affirmative* meaning of "a little" answers to the *affirmative* meaning of "a few." (See Chap. III, § 1, para. 12.)

Note 3.—The word "little," besides being an *Adverb* of Quantity, can be also used as an *Adjective* of Quantity; as, "he

has taken a little food' and sometimes it is an Adjective of Quality as, 'Little (trifling) things may give us more trouble than great ones' (See Chapter III § 1 para 5)

Point out the Parts of Spee h of *l ttl* in the following sentences —

> This is a *little* matter about which I wish to speak to you and you will be not a *l ttl* surprised when you hear it A *little* learning is a dangerous thing I arrive l a *l ttl* after 8 o clock this mornin g Rest *a l ttle* if you are tired *l ttl* men are often more pro id than great ones He *l ttle* thought I was 1 was so near

Adverbs of N mler or O der

7 [Adverbs of **Number** or **Order** are found by asking *how man) times* or *in 1 lat order* a th ng is done]

Most of these adverbs are formed from Numeral Adjectives as below —

Car l als		*O l ls*	
Adj ct i	*A l l*	*A lj ct v*	*A l b*
One	O ce	First	Firstly
Two	T c	Secor l	Sec n lly
Thr e	Thri o	Tl l	Tl ir lly
Fou	I r t i es	F th	Fourtl ly
Fi e	F e t n es	F fth	Fiftl ly

8 There are a few Numeral Adverbs in which no particular number is specified as in the following examples —

> He *s t s* sm le l He *s ldo* smile l He *ften* fell si k He *al a ys* got well He *ne* ome He came *aga n* He came *fr q t* He came *o or*

These might be called Indefinite Numeral Adverbs

Adve l s of Time

9 [Adverbs of **Time** are found by asking *when* or *for how long* or *from what time* a thing is done —]

> He did this *b f r* He did it *afterwards* He has done this *alr a ly* He did it *l ng ago* He was *tl en* sick He is *now* sick He came *arly* and went *late* He came *at last* He came *soon* He came *at once* He came *to day* He came *yest rday* He will come *to morrow* He will come *hourly* (once an hour) He came *da ly* (every day) He came *meanwhil* *Henceforth* (from this time) we shall not see him.

10. **Since** :—

This word is sometimes an Adverb of Time, sometimes a Conjunction of Time, and sometimes a Preposition of Time.

The proper use of this word is to Indian students one of the greatest puzzles in the English language; but no difficulty will exist, if the following rules are attended to :—

(*a*) As an **Adverb** it signifies *from now* or *from the present time*, and its use is limited by three conditions :—(1) it stands *after* the word or words which it qualifies; (2) it is preceded by a verb in the *Past Indefinite* Tense; (3) it is placed after a noun or phrase denoting some *period* of time, never after a noun denoting some *point* of time.

My father *died* two years since(=from now.)
The school *broke up* a fortnight since(=from now.)

(*b*) As a **Conjunction** it signifies *from which time*, and its use is limited by three conditions :—(1) it is followed by a verb in the *Past Indefinite* Tense; (2) it is preceded by a verb in the *Present Indefinite* or *Present Perfect* Tense; (3) it is preceded by a noun or phrase denoting some *period* of time, never by a noun denoting a *point* of time :—

Two years *have passed* since my father *died*.
It is now a week since the school *broke up*.

(*c*) As a **Preposition** it signifies *from*, and its use is limited by two conditions :—(1) it is placed before a noun or phrase denoting some *point* of time, never before a noun or phrase denoting a *period* of time; (2) it is preceded by a verb in the *Present Perfect* Tense :—

My father *has been* dead *since* January, 1892.
The school *has broken up since* last Monday.

Note.—Condition (1) is very often neglected, however, by Indian students :—

Thus, it is incorrect to say :—

My father has been ill *since six weeks*.

The proper phrase would be :—

My father has been ill *for the last* six weeks, *or*, it is six weeks since my father began to be ill, *or* my father was taken ill six weeks since.

Point out any mistakes you can find in the following sentences, and show how the sentences should be corrected :—

> I have not seen you since a long time.
> I am ill from fever since last Saturday.
> Ten months elapsed since we were last examined.
> The examination has begun two days since.
> My brother was made a judge since last April.
> How long was it since you left school?
> This boy has been studying English since six years.
> It is five years since my brother has gone to England.
> I have been very happy since you have come.

The phrase "I am seeing you after many days" is very commonly used in India, but it is not idiomatic. It should be worded :—"It is many days (or many days have passed) since I last saw you." The use of *since* in this sentence conforms precisely with the rules given above under (*b*.)

11. **Ago** :—

This is used only as an Adverb of Time,—never as a Conjunction or Preposition. Its use as an adverb coincides exactly with that of "since," as explained above under (*a*); and it signifies (as "since" also does) *from the present time*. The two words are precisely synonymous.

> My father *died* two years ago (=from now.)
> The school *broke up* a fortnight ago (=from now.)

Here observe that the three rules noted above have all been kept :—(1) "ago" stands *after* the words or word which it qualifies; (2) it is preceded by a verb in the *Past Indefinite* Tense; (3) it is placed after a phrase denoting a *period*, and not a *point* of time.

12. **Before** :—

This word is used sometimes as an Adverb of Time, sometimes as a Conjunction of Time, and sometimes as a Preposition of Time.

(*a*.) As an **Adverb** of Time it signifies *formerly*, or *on a former occasion*.

> I did this once *before*, and I will do it again.
> The post arrives an hour earlier than *before*.
> I never *before* saw such a dreadful sight.

(*b.*) **As a Conjunction** of Time it is followed by a verb in some Past or Present Tense :—

> The crops dried up, before the rains *fell* or *had fallen*.
> The crops will die, before the rains *fall* or *have fallen*.

(*c.*) **As a Preposition** of Time it is always used with some noun or phrase denoting a *point* of time, and never with one denoting a *period* of time :—

> The rains will fall *before the first* of next month.
> You will win a prize *before your next birthday*.
> They will all have escaped *before that time*.

It is quite wrong to use this preposition with a noun or phrase denoting a *period* of time. Thus it is incorrect to say :—

> My father died *before a week*.
> We left India *before three months*.

These should be changed to :—

> My father died *a week ago* or *a week since*.
> We left India *three months ago* or *three months since*.

Point out the part of speech of *before* in the following sentences, and correct any mistakes that you can find :—

> We saw you in good health *before* a year. The grass dried up *before* a shower of rain fell. *Before* he came, everything was in bad order. *Before* three months have passed, you will leave India. He won a prize *before*, and he will win one again. *Before* a week passes, he will be quite well. He returned from school *before* a week. He returned *before* the end of the month.

13. Already :—

This adverb denotes that something has happened *prior to the time mentioned or thought of*. It is never correctly used in any other sense :—

> Light the fire. It is lighted *already*.
> Joseph's brethren went down into Egypt; Joseph himself was there *already*.
> Does he seem to be recovering? He has almost recovered *already*.
> He was now nearly grown up; for he had *already* passed his twentieth birthday.
> Before this letter reaches you, you will have *already* reached home.

Adverbs of Place.

14. Adverbs of **Place** are found by asking *where* or *in what place* a thing is done :—

> He stood *before* He stood *behind* He went *forward*, and not *backward*. He stood *below*. The birds flew *above*.
> He is not *here*, but *there* He was *no where* found. He stood *apart* from us. He stood *aside* We sent him *away*. We sent him *off* He rode *onwards*. The birds flew *upwards*. He rode *along*. You will find him *outside*, and not *inside*. The cows are grazing *hither* and *thither*, *up* and *down*, on the hill side. We will go *hence* (from this place,) if you come *thence* (from that place.) He stood *afar off* (at a great distance apart) Some stood *near*, others *around*, others *beyond*. You will find him *somewhere* We could not find him *anywhere*. The air is around us *everywhere*.

Adverbs of Affirming or Denying.

15. Such adverbs show whether the answer to a question is yes or no, and whether a thing is said with certainty or doubt :—

The chief Adverbs of this class are :—

Affirming—*yes, yea, aye, indeed, by all means.*

Denying—*no, not, nay, not at all, by no means.*

Doubt—*perhaps, perchance, possibly, probably, improbably.*

Certainty—*surely, certainly, doubtless, truly, verily.*

16. Mistakes are often made by Indian students in the use of "yes" or "no" in answering a question.

If the question is *affirmative*, there is less fear of ambiguity in the answer :—

> *Question.* Is the sky cloudy to-day?
> *Answer.* Yes: it is; *or* No: it is not.

But if the question is put in a *Negative* form, the answer given is often ambiguous :—

> Did you *not* find him at home?

The answer sometimes given is :—

> *Yes*: I did *not* find him at home.

This is quite wrong; and the proper answer would be :—

Yes: I *did* find him at home; *or No*: I did *not* find him at home.

Two rules, then, should be remembered :—

(1.) If the answer to be given is "yes," the verb following must be in the *affirmative*.

(2.) If the answer to be given is "no," the verb following must be in the *negative*.

An affirmative verb must never come after "no"; a negative verb must never come after "yes."

INTERROGATIVE ADVERBS.

17. (Adverbs can also be used for making questions, and such Adverbs are called **Interrogative.**)

(*a.*) *Quality* or *Manner*. "How (in what manner) did he do this? How (in what state of health) is he to-day"?

(*b.*) *Quality* or *Degree*. "How far (to what extent) is this report true."

(*c.*) *Number*. "How often did the dog bark? How many persons came"?

(*d.*) *Time*. "When did he come? How long will he remain here? How soon will he go"?

(*e.*) *Place*. "Where did he go? How far (to what distance) did he go? Whence has he come? Whither (to what place) is he going"?

(*f.*) *Cause*. "Why (for what reason or cause) did he say this? Wherefore does she weep"?

N. B.—The above words are *Adverbs*, only when they are used for *asking questions*.

But when they are used for *joining* one sentence to another: as "I do not know *when* he came," they are *Conjunctions*, and not Adverbs.

§ 3.—DEGREES OF COMPARISON IN ADVERBS.

MANY Adverbs have degrees of comparison like Adjectives; and these are formed in the same kind of way.

(*a*) If the Adverb is a word of *one* syllable the Comparative is formed by adding *er* and the Surperlative by adding *est* —

Positive	*Comparative*	*Superlative*
Soon	sooner	soonest
Hard	harder	hardest
Long	longer	longest
Loud	louder	loudest
Late	later	latest or last
Near	nearer	nearest
Quick	quicker	quickest
(Rath	rather	rathest
——	ere	erst

(*b*) Some Adverbs form the degrees of comparison in an irregular way —

Well	better	best
Ill or badly	worse	worst
Much	more	most
Little	less	least
Forth	further	furthest
Far	farther	farthest

( ) Adverbs which end in *ly* form the Comparative Degree by adding *more* and the Superlative by adding *most*, as *wisely more wisely most wisely beautifully more beautifully, most beautifully*

In poetry however the *ly* is sometimes changed into *lier* for the Comparative and into *liest* for the Superlative as

> Strange friend past present and to be
> Loved *deeplier darklier* understood —*Tennyson*

But this must not be imitated in prose

§ 4.—THE FORMS OF ADVERBS

1 SOME Adverbs have the same form as the corresponding Adjectives as

Adverb	*Adjective*
He was *much* pleased	There is *much* sickness here
He stayed *long*	He went on a *long* journey

Adverb	*Adjective*
He spoke *loud*	There is a sound of *loud* voices
He came *early*	He woke up at an *early* hour
He hit him *hard*	This is a *hard* piece of wood
He came *quick*	They rode along at a *quick* pace
Stand *near*, while I speak	He is my *near* relation
He was *a little* tired	There is *little* hope now
He *only* came once	This is my *only* son
He slept *hourly*	He had an *hourly* sleep
He has slept *enough*	He has eaten *enough* bread

2. **Adverbs in 'ly.'** The most common mode in which Adverbs have been formed is by adding *ly* (a corruption from *like*) to the Adjective, as *tender*, *tender-like*, *tenderly*.

Every class of Adverb has examples of this formation:—

Adjective	*Adverb*
Wise	Wisely (*Adverb of Quality*)
Whole	Wholly (*Adverb of Quantity*)
First	Firstly (*Adverb of Number or Order*)
Former	Formerly (*Adverb of Time*)
Distant	Distantly (*Adverb of Place*)
Certain	Certainly (*Adverb of Affirming*)

3. But this form of the Adverb occurs most frequently in Adverbs of *Quality or Manner*, and there is generally an Abstract Noun which can be placed between the Adjective and the Adverb:—

Adjective	*Abstract Noun*	*Adverb*
Wise	wisdom	wisely
Poor	poverty	poorly
High	height	highly
Short	shortness	shortly
Honest	honesty	honestly
Dark	darkness	darkly
Brave	bravery	bravely
Prudent	prudence	prudently
Sweet	sweetness	sweetly
Just	justice	justly
Great	greatness	greatly
Hot	heat	hotly
Wide	width	widely
True	truth	truly

4 **From Demonstrative Adjectives** To this list belong all Adverbs which are formed from Demonstrative Adjectives —

Demonstrative Adjectives	*Demonstrative Adverbs*				
	Rest	*Motion to*	*Motion from*	*Time*	*Manner*
The	there	thither	thence	then	thus
He	here	hither	hence		

5 Most of the above adverbs can be compounded with a preposition which is placed after them —

From "there" we get *therein, thereto, thereat, therefore, therefrom, therewith, thereout, thereon*, or *thereupon, thereof*

From "here" we get *herein, hereto, heretofore, hereat, herewith, hereon* or *hereupon, hereof, hereby, hereafter.*

From "hither" we get *hitherto* (—up to this point of place or time)

From "thence" we get *thenceforth, thenceforward*
From "hence" we get *henceforth, henceforward.*

6 **From a Preposition with a Noun.** Adverbs are sometimes formed out of a preposition with its noun

(*a*) The preposition may be *separate* from the noun, in which case the adverb might be called an "Adverbial Phrase" —

Adverb	*Meaning*	*Adverb*	*Meaning*
At random	aimlessly	In fact	actually
Of course	necessarily	To boot	moreover
At length	finally.	By chance	accidentally

(*b.*) The preposition may be *amalgamated* with the noun, so as to form a Compound Adverb:—

Adverb.	*Meaning.*	*Adverb.*	*Meaning.*
Indeed	actually.	Overboard	over the ship's side
Betimes	punctually.	Overhead	above our heads.
Besides	in addition.	Upside	on the upper side
Between	in the middle.	Outside	on the outer side.
To day	on this day.	Inside	on the inner side
To-morrow	on the next day	Forsooth	indeed (ironically.)

Note.—The '*be*' is an old form of "by." Hence "betimes" means "by the proper time, or punctually." The word "between," was once written "by twain," or "in the middle of two."

(*c.*) Many adverbs have been formed from nouns by prefixing "a" to the noun. This "a" is a contracted form of "on" or "in," and signifies *at*, *on*, *in*, or *in a state of.*

Adverb	*Meaning*	*Adverb.*	*Meaning.*
Asleep	in a state of sleep.	Apace	at a quick pace.
Abed	in bed	Apart	in a separate part.
Away	on the way.	Apiece	in separate lots.
Afoot	on foot.	Aside	at one side.
Adrift	in a drifting state.	Aslant	in a slanting state.
Aboard	on board of ship	Aslope	in a sloping state.
Afield	on the field.	Astir	in a stirring state.
Afloat	in a floating state.	Astern	on the stern of a ship.
Aground	on the ground	Athirst	in a thirsty state.
Ahead	in front	Ajar	in a jarring state.
Amain	with might and main	Awake	in a wakeful state.
Ablaze	in a blazing state.	Awhile	for a short while.
Amiss	faultily	Ashore	on the shore.
Akin	in one state of kinship.	Aloof	to one side, apart.

Note.—To the same class belong such phrases as the following:—

> Wheat sells at 16 seers *a rupee*
> He called to see me once *a week*
> He gave the coolies 4 annas *a piece*.
> Passing rich on forty pounds *a year*
> —*Goldsmith.*

Here "a" is not the Indefinite Article, but an abridgment of "on," as in the adverbial phrases noted above. In old english the "on" was used, and not "a."

The "a" looks so much like the Indefinite Article, that by a false analogy "the" is sometimes used in its place, as,

Wheat sells at 16 seers *the* rupee

In one phrase, and one only, the *on* has been contracted to *o* —

It is now four *o'clock* (= on the clock)

7 **From a Preposition with an Adjective** Adverbs of this list are formed in precisely the same way as the preceding The adjective in all cases is *used as a noun* or it may be said that *some noun has been understood* (How adjectives can be used as nouns has been explained at length in Chapter III § 6)

(*a*) The preposition may be *separate* from the adjective, in this case the adverb might be called an Adverbial Phrase —

Adverb	*Meaning*	*Adverb*	*Meaning*
In general	generally	At first	in the beginning
In particular	especially	At last	finally at the end
In short	briefly speaking	At least	at the lowest degree
At large	widely extensively	At all	in any degree
In vain	fruitlessly	At most	at the greatest degree
On high	in a high place	At best	at the best reckoning
Of old	in former times	In future	henceforward
After all	eventually	At present	at the present time

(*b*) The preposition may be *amalgamated* with the adjective so as to form a compound adverb —

Below in a lower position
Beyond in a more distant (or yonder) place
Behind in a hind or hinder part

(*c*) Some adverbs have been formed from adjectives by prefixing "a" as in the case of Nouns —

Adverb	*Meaning*	*Adverb*	*Meaning*
Abroad	to a broad distance	Along	forwards
Anew } Afresh }	newly from a new beginning	Aloud	loudly
		Alive	in a living state
Awry	in a crooked way	Alike	in a like state or way.
Afar	to a far distance	Around	in a circular way
Across	at the opposite side	Aright	in a right way
Aloft	to a high point	Aware	knowingly
Aghast	in a frightened state	Afraid	in a state of fear

8 **From a Noun with an Adjective.** Some adverbs are formed from a noun qualified by its adjective. The two words have become amalgamated, so as to form a Compound Adverb; as,

Meantime, meanwhile, midway, yesterday, somewhat.

Note.—If we were to separate the noun from the adjective, we should parse the noun as being in the Objective Case of time, space, or degree. (See Chapter XI, § 1, *Syntax.*)

9. **From a Noun in the Possessive Case.** Some adverbs or adverbial phrases have been formed from nouns in the Possessive Case. These are sometimes called Genitival Adverbs.

(a.) A few of these Adverbial Phrases consist of the preposition "**of**" followed by its noun or by an adjective used as a noun :—

Of yore, of old, of course, of right, of a truth.

(b.) Others have retained the *s* (or its equivalent sound *ce,*) but have dropped the *apostrophe.*

Needs (=of need, necessarily.) *Once* (=of one, or of one time.) *Twice* (=of two times.) *Sometimes* (=of sometime.) *Always* (=of all way.) *Sideways* (=of a side-way.) *Lengthways* (=of a length-way.) *Else* (=of other, from an old genitive "elles," of another).

10. **From an Adverb and a Preposition.** Some adverbs have been formed out of an adverb joined to a preposition, or a preposition joined to an adverb :—

Forthwith, within, without, forever, at once, before, beneath, moreover, furthermore.

11. Adverbs sometimes go together *in pairs,* which are connected by the conjunction "and" :—

He is walking *up and down.*
He is walking *here and there, hither and thither.*
The mice run *in and out.*
He is coming *to and fro.*
He comes here *now and then.*
He works *off and on* (irregularly.)
You will see him *by and by* (in a short time.)
He went *backwards and forwards.*

12. Two or more words habitually thrown together in an adverbial sense may be called *Adverbial Phrases* :—

> *By no means* ; *by all means* ; *by the by* (something said in passing) ; *by the way* (similar to *by the by*) ; *once on a time* , *inside out* (the inside part being placed outside); *upside down* (the upper part being placed downwards) ; *to be sure* (certainly) ; *head foremost* (with the head in front) ; *head downwards* (with the head downwards) ; *topsy turvy* : *head over heels* (the head being thrown over the heels.)

§ 5.—POSITION OF THE ADVERB.

1. IF the word to be qualified is an Adjective, or an Adverb, or a Preposition, or a Conjunction, the qualifying Adverb is placed immediately *before it.*

Adjective. or *Participle.*	We are *half* pleased and *half* sorry. The mango you brought was *quite* ripe Your pay is *too* large for your work
Adverb.	A snake creeps *very* silently. He stood *far* apart from me. He seized my hand *rather* eagerly.
Preposition.	He arrived *long* before the time. We sat *almost* in the shade. He stood *exactly* behind me.
Conjunction.	Tell me *precisely* how it happened. I like mango *only* when it is ripe. He did this *merely* because he was ordered.

Note.—There is one exception to the above rule. The word "enough," (when it is an Adverb and not an Adjective,) is placed *after* the word it qualifies :—

> Your pay is large *enough* for your work.
> He spoke highly *enough* of your work.

This has been explained already in § 2, para. 5.

2. If the verb to be qualified is *Intransitive*, the qualifying adverb is placed immediately *after* it :—

> He lived *well* and died *happily*.
> He laughed *heartily* at that joke.
> He spoke *foolishly* about his own merits.

Note.—To this rule there are five exceptions :—

The Adverbs *always*, *never*, *often*, *sometimes*, and *seldom*, (all of which are Indefinite Numeral Adverbs,) are usually placed *before*, and not *after*, the verb they qualify.

He *always* laughed at a good joke.
He *never* spoke about his own merits
He *often* came here to see me.
He *sometimes* slept in my house.
He *seldom* stayed with me for long.

3. If the verb to be qualified is *Transitive*, the qualifying adverb must not be allowed to separate the verb and its object.

The Adverb must therefore be placed either *before the verb* or *after the Object*; but it is more commonly placed after the object:—

He bore his losses *cheerfully*.
He did his work *patiently* till sunset
He *briefly* explained his meaning.

4. If the tense of the verb is formed by an Auxiliary verb, the Qualifying Adverb is generally placed *between* the Auxiliary Verb and the Main Verb:—

The wind has *suddenly* risen.
Your son will *soon* return.
I have *quite* understood your meaning.
He had *pleasantly* related his story.
He is *almost* dying, I fear

Similarly the Negative Adverb "*not*" is always placed between the Auxiliary Verb and the Main Verb. (See above, Chapter IV, § 3, para. 11.)

We have *not* seen him since Monday last.
I did *not* know how ill he was.
We shall *not* punish him severely.

Correct the position of the adverb in the following sentences:—

He *exactly* stood in front of me. He explained *clearly* his words. I have read *often* that book. He struck *severely* the ox with his whip. He *soon* will return home. He *almost* has finished his task. The rain began to fall *suddenly*. Your teacher is *enough* pleased with your industry. He went out *seldom* before sunset.

An adverb is placed first in a sentence, (*a*) when it

is intended to qualify *the whole sentence*, (*b*) when it is used *very emphatically*.

> (*a*) *Unfortunately* the house was robbed before the thieves were caught
>
> *Luckily* there was no one in the house, when the roof fell in
>
> (*b*) *Never* man spake like that man
>
> *Always*, before day break, he rose from his bed

6 ONLY The meaning of a sentence depends upon the position of this word

> (*a*) *Only* he promised to read the first chapter of that book

Here "only" is an Adjective, and not an Adverb As an adjective it qualifies the pronoun "he"

"He alone, and no one else, promised to read the first chapter, &c

> (*b*) He *only* promised to read the first chapter of that book

Here "only" is an Adverb qualifying the verb "promised" and the meaning is that he merely or only promised, but did not perform the promise

> (*c*) He promised *only* to read the first chapter of that book

That is, he did not promise to study, analyze, or remember, but *only to read* Here "only" is an Adverb qualifying the verb "read"

> (*d*) He promised to read *only* the first chapter of that book

That is, he promised to read nothing more than the *first* chapter Here "only" is an adverb qualifying the adjective "the first"

> (*e*) He promised to read the first chapter of that book *only* (or, *only* of that book)

That is, he promised to read the first chapter of no other book but that Here "only" is an adverb qualifying the adjective "that"

§ 6 —VERBS COMPOUNDED WITH ADVERBS

1 A VERB is said to be compounded with an Adverb, when the two words are so habitually used together, that one is considered to be a part of the other

In English the Adverb is almost always placed *after* the verb, as "speak out, rise up." Here the *out* should

be parsed as part of the verb "speak"; and "up" as part of the verb "rise."

But in poetry the Adverb is sometimes placed *in front* of the verb; as,

> *Out spake* the victor then. —*Campbell.*
>
> *Up rose* the sun with slanting beams. —*Rogers.*

2. Verbs, which are thus compounded with Adverbs, may be either Transitive or Intransitive.

The addition of the adverb modifies the *meaning* of the verb, but does not ordinarily change its *nature*: hence the verb in most instances remains Transitive or Intransitive, exactly as it was before the adverb was added to it. This will be seen from the following examples:—

About:—

Intransitive. How did this change *come about* (happen)?
Transitive. How did he *bring about* (cause to happen) this change?

Down:—

Intransitive. We must *sit down* a little for rest.
Transitive We must *bring down* (lower) our prices.

In:—

Intrans { He *came in* (entered) at the right moment. He *falls in* (agrees) with my views.

Trans. { He was *drawn in* (induced) to sign his name. He *filled in* (inserted) the figures.

Off, (a form of *of*):—

Intrans. { The fair *came off* (happened) yesterday. He *got off* (escaped) unhurt. He *passed off* (appeared) as a scholar. He has *fallen off* (declined) in health.

Trans. { A snake *casts off* (discards) its skin once a year. He *broke off* (cancelled) the bargain. They *struck off* (printed) 1,000 copies. A rose *gives off* (emits) a sweet smell.

On:—

Intrans. { He *lived on* (continued living) for many more years. He is *getting on* (progressing) favourably. The men *went on* (advanced) in the dark.

Trans. { He *carried on* (conducted) the business. He *had on* (wore) his new hat. This will *help on* (promote) the good cause.

Out :—

Intrans { He *went out* (departed) and wept bitterly. Hills *stand out* (project) above the plain. He *spoke out* with a clear voice

Trans. { He will *carry out* (accomplish) our plans. He *worked out* (solved) the problem. A rose *gives out* (emits) a sweet smell.

Over :—

Intrans. { This matter must *lie over* (wait) for a time. The storm has *blown over* (come to an end.)

Trans. { He *called over* (recited) the names. He *took over* (received from the other side) charge.

To :—

Intrans. He fainted, but soon *came to* (revived.)

Trans. He fainted, but was soon *brought to* (restored.)

Up :—

Intrans. { The school *broke up* (dispersed) for the holidays. He *came up* (arrived) in good time He *sat up* (remained awake) all night. A new difficulty has *cropped up* (suddenly appeared.)

Trans. { They *got up* (concocted) a false charge. The pleader *threw up* (abandoned) the case. We must *show up* (expose) this fault. I cannot *call up* (recollect) his name

3. In some of the following examples a Transitive Verb is used intransitively, or *vice versa*, according to the adverb, with which it is compounded.

Make.

The thief *made off* (fled) as fast as he could He has *made over* (delivered) charge I cannot *make out* (understand) your meaning They *made* it *up* (became reconciled) with each other. They *made up* (concocted) a false case. A book is *made up* (composed) of pages The loss was *made up* to him (he was compensated)

Break.

The coach *broke down* (met with some accident.) His plan *broke down* (failed) He *broke off* (stopped suddenly) in the midst of his words. Cholera has *broken out* (suddenly appeared) He *broke away* (separated himself) from his keepers. School *breaks up* (disperses) at 4 P. M. We must *break in* (train to work) that horse.

Hold.

Hold in (restrain) the horse. *Hold on* (wait) till I come back. They cannot *hold out* (maintain their position) much longer. They *held* him *up* (exposed him to view) as an example.

Call.

He *called out* (shouted) as loud as he could. He *called out* (summoned from their respective homes) all the workmen. This work *called out* or *called forth* (roused into action) all his energies.

Frame sentences with the following compound verbs, showing when they are Transitive and when Intransitive. Whenever it is possible, put some other verb in the place of the Compound Verb.

Cast in, cast off, cast up, cast out, cast down, cast away.
Fall in, fall out, fall down, fall off, fall through, fall to, fall away.
Give in, give out, give off, give away, give up, give over.
Get out, get in, get up, get on, get away
Take in, take out, take down, take off, take over, take away, take up, take back.
Pay off, pay down, pay in, pay back.
Come in, come down, come off, come out, come away, come about, come on, come over.
Stand off, stand over, stand up, stand out, stand by
Throw up, throw over, throw down, throw in.
Set off, set in, set out, set down, set up, set on, set aside
Lay up, lay down, lay by, lay out, lay in.
Cut up, cut off, cut down, cut out.
Carry off, carry on, carry out, carry through, carry over, carry in.
Pass over, pass by, pass off
Put by, put out, put on, put off, put down, put up, put in.
Run out, run over, run through, run up, run down, run off.
Turn up, turn out, turn off, turn in.
Draw in, draw up, draw back, draw out, draw off.

4. When a verb is compounded with an adverb, the adverb is, (as we have seen,) almost always put last.

But in forming the corresponding noun, the adverb is put first :—

Verb.		*Noun.*
The crops will *come out* well	...	The *outcome* of the rains was good crop.
The profits that *came in* are very small.	...	His *income* is small.
Cholera did not *break out*	..	There was no *outbreak* of cholera.
He *set out* on his journey	...	He had no trouble at the *outset*.

Similar instances are :—*set off* (verb,) *offset* (noun); *put out* (verb,) *output* (noun); *fit out* (verb,) *outfit* (noun); *shoot off* (verb,) *offshoot* (noun); *spring off* (verb), *offspring* (noun);

shoot up (verb,) *upshot* (noun); *turn out* (verb,) *outturn* (noun); *cast out* (verb,) *outcast* (noun); *set on* (verb,) *onset* (noun); *lay out* (verb,) *outlay* (noun); *look out* (verb,) *outlook* (noun); *draw in* (verb,) *indraught* (noun); *let out* (verb,) *outlet* (noun); *let in* (verb,) *inlet* (noun); *cry out* (verb,) *outcry* (noun); *pour out* (verb,) *outpour* (noun).

§ 7.—ADVERBS USED AS COMPLEMENTS.

1. AN Adverb can be used, not merely to qualify a verb, but also as the *Complement* to a "verb of Incomplete Predication."

This peculiar use of adverbs is limited (*a*) to Adverbs of **State** or **Quality** and (*b*) to Adverbs of **Place**.

(For verbs of Incomplete Predication see Chapter V, § 1, para. 11 and para. 13, and § 2, para. 5.)

2. Adverbs of **State** or **Quality**—

Subject.	*Verb.*	*Complement, &c.*
My son ...	is ...	*well* (in good health) to-day.
He ...	will be ...	*better* (in better health) soon.
The boat ...	was set ...	*afloat* (in a floating state.)
He ...	was turned ...	*adrift* (to go where he could.)
The two boys...	are ...	much *alike* (like to each other.)
The bear ...	was caught ...	*alive* (in a living state.)
Those men ...	are ...	*aware* (conscious) of their faults.
The game ...	is ...	*over* (finished.)
It ...	is ...	all *over* with him.
Some money ...	was ...	still *over* (remaining.)
The results ...	are ...	*out* (published.)
The stars ..	are ...	*out* (visible.)
He ...	was heard ...	*out* (to the very end.)
The bargain ...	is ..	*off* (cancelled.)
The train ...	is ...	*off* (started.)
The house ...	was set ...	*ablaze* (in a blazing state.)
He ...	is ...	well *off* (in good circumstances.)
Prices ...	are ...	*up* (risen.)
We ...	must be ...	*up* and doing.
His blood ...	was ...	*up* (aroused, excited.)
Time ...	is ...	*up* (come to an end.)
Prices ...	are ...	*down* (fallen low.)
He ...	is ...	*down* (fallen in his luck.)
Our side ...	is ...	*in* (having their innings.)
The late minister, is		... *in* (holding office) again.

The adverb "*so*" is used as a Complement in reference to any kind of state that has been previously mentioned. (See above Chapter IV, § 3, para. 7.)

> My business is urgent, and I hope you will treat it *so*.
> (Here *so* = *urgent*, and is the Complement to the verb "treat.")

3. Adverbs of Place:—

Subject.		*Verb.*		*Complement, &c.*
The tearless life	...	is	...	*there* (in that place, heaven.)
The men	...	are	...	all *together* (in the same place.)
Thy mother	...	is	...	*without* (outside the room.)
He	...	is	...	*far away* (in a distant place.)
No one	...	is	...	*here* (in this place.)
He	...	is	..	*abroad* (in a foreign land.)
Rocks	...	are	...	*ahead* (in front.)
The cart	...	is	...	*behind* (in some hinder place.)
Heaven	...	lies	...	*before* (in front.)
Heaven	...	is	...	*above* (over our head.)
Hell	...	is	...	*beneath* (below us.)
We	...	found	...	him *within* (in his house.)
The sheep	...	are	...	*afield* (in the field.)
He	...	stood	...	*aside* (on one side,)
Thou	...	art	...	so *near*, (and yet so *far*.)

General Summary.

4. It will now be seen that the definition usually given, *viz.*, that "an adverb qualifies a verb, an adjective, or other adverb," is not wide enough to cover its actual uses.

The full definition would be:—

"*An adverb can qualify a verb, an adjective, a preposition, a conjunction, another Adverb, or an entire sentence; and some adverbs can be used as Complements to verbs of Incomplete Predication.*"

CHAPTER VII.—PREPOSITIONS.

§ 1.—The Work of Prepositions in a Sentence.

1. A **Preposition** is a word placed before a noun or pronoun to show in what relation the thing named stands to some other thing.

2. *A Preposition is never added to any part of speech except a noun or pronoun.*

An adverb is never added to a noun or pronoun.

By this simple rule the student can always tell whether a word is a preposition or an adveb; and therefore the one need never be confounded with the other.

3. The same word, however, can be used in one place as an adverb, and in another as a preposition.

Examples.

Adverb.	*Preposition.*
He walked *about.*	He walked *about* the field.
The men ran *past.*	He came at half *past* seven.
The *above* named book.	The sky is *above* the earth.
He swam *across.*	The house stands *across* that field.
I saw him once *before.*	He stood *before* the door.
Go *along* quickly.	Let us walk *along* the bank.
You must go *behind.*	A man stood *behind* the door.
He sat *below.*	He stood *below* me in the class.
There is nothing *beyond.*	They went *beyond* the mark.
The horse was going *by.*	*By* whom was this done?
Sit *down* here.	The boat floats *down* the stream.
He sat *inside.*	The book is *inside* the box.
The men stood *around.*	They walked *around* the fields.
He is standing *near.*	Your house is *near* mine.
He died two years *since.*	*Since* that year I have been ill.
Stand *up* straight.	Walk *up* the hill.
He lived *on* for two years.	A book is *on* the slate.
He came a few days *after.*	He came *after* a few days.
Bees fly *in* and *out.*	Fish swim *in* the water.
They came *out* at noon.	Frogs jump *out of* the water.
There were four men *besides,*	and ten more *besides* these.
The house was clean *within.*	I slept *without* the house.
The house was clean *without.*	Men die *without* sleep.

4. Two Prepositions to the same Noun. The same noun may have two or more prepositions placed before it:—

> He walked *up* and *down* the hillside. He was much opposed *to*, and wrote strongly *against*, that design. (This, however, could be more gracefully worded thus:—"he was much opposed to that design, and wrote strongly against it.)

5. The same Preposition to two or more Nouns. The same preposition can be placed before several different nouns at once:—

> He divided his property among his *parents, wife, children*, and *friends*.

6. **Position of the Preposition.** As a general rule a Preposition stands immediately *before* its object.

But to this there are a few exceptions: —

(*a.*) When the object is a Relative Pronoun, the preposition is often placed after the verb of the sentence, provided the verb is Intransitive :—

> The house *that* we lived *in* has fallen down, *or* the house *in which* we lived has fallen down.

If, (as often happens,) the Relative Pronoun is understood, the preposition is *always* placed after the verb :—

> The house (that) we lived *in* has fallen down.

(*b.*) The preposition can be separated from its noun by adjectives or by a noun or pronoun in the Possessive Case :—

> The hen came up to *my* door with *her ten black* chickens.

(*c.*) In poetry (not in prose,) a preposition of two syllables can sometimes be placed after its noun :—

> He dwelt the fields *among*.
>
> — *Wordsworth.*

7. A sentence preceded by a Relative Pronoun, or by a Relative Conjunction, provided no Antecedent is expressed

can be the object to a preposition, in the same way as a noun is :—

> This depends *upon* whether-he-will-consent-or-not. He told every one *of* what-he-had-heard. He did not act up *to* what-he-had-promised. He made all enquiries *as to* where-they-were-going, and why-they-decided-to-go, and when-they were-likely-to-return. Go whenever you like *except* that-you-must-not-go-in-the-rain.

8. An Intransitive Verb can be made Transitive by having a preposition placed immediately after it. (See Chapter V, § 1, para. 15.)

These can be considered as real Transitives, provided they can be used in the Passive Voice. (See Chapter V, § 2, para. 6.)

> We act on this rule.—*Active.*
> This rule is acted on by us.—*Passive.*

When the verb is in the Passive Voice, the *on* cannot be parsed as a preposition, since there is no object to which it is prefixed. It must therefore be parsed as "a part of the Verb," and the verb itself must be called "a Prepositional Verb," or a "Verb compounded with a Preposition."

9. In Prepositional Verbs, the preposition is almost always placed after the verb; but "*without*" and "*over*" are often placed before it :—

> He *withstood* (stood against, endured) the attack.
> He has *outgrown* (grown beyond) his sister.
> The father has *outlived* (lived beyond) the son.
> The hare *outran* (ran beyond) the hounds.
> They *outvoted* him (defeated him by votes.)
> Silver is *outweighed* (surpassed in weight) by gold.
> He was *overcome* (defeated) by the enemy.
> The banks were *overflowed* (inundated) with water.
> The field is *overgrown* (covered) with weeds.
> The shadow *overhangs* the house.
> The boundary has been *overstepped* (transgressed.)

Note 1.—Observe that all these verbs, when they are used apart from the preposition, are Intransitive, and that it is the *preposition* which makes them Transitive, that is, which renders them capable of governing an object, or of being used in the Passive Voice.

Note 2.—A verb compounded with an *adverb* is not similarly changed from Intransitive to Transitive. (See Chapter VI, § 5, para. 2.)

§ 2.—THE FROMS OF PREPOSITIONS.

1 **The simple** or primary prepositions are :—

At, *by*, *with*, *on*, *or*, *in*, *to*, *for*, *of* or *off*, *from*, *through*, *over*. *under*, *up*, *down*.

2. **Double Prepositions.** When a single preposition is not sufficient to express all that is intended, a *double* preposition can be formed by adding two single or simple ones together.

These sometimes remain separate words, and sometimes they are joined together so as to make a single word :—

> *Into* the house, (*i. e.*, *to or towards* the *inside* of the house.) *Throughout* the year (*i. e.*, *entirely through* the year, or from the beginning to the end of the year.) He ran *out of* the house. One man was chosen *from among* the rest. The seed has sprouted *from under* the ground. The man stood *over against* the bank. The mouse came out *from within* its hole. The mouse crept out *from between* the planks. The dog was found *in among* the boxes. *Except for* or *but for* your help, (=without your help,) I should have failed.

Note.—Similarly *about* = on-by-out ; *above*=on-by-up ; *before*= by-fore ; *within*=with-in ; *without*=with-out.

3. **Compound Prepositions.** These are compounded of a preposition prefixed to some noun or some adjective used as a noun.

The prepositions chiefly used for this purpose are (1) *on*, which in composition is changed to *a*, and (2) *by*, which in composition is changed to *be*.

> *Across* (=on-cross) ; to go *across* the river.
> *Against* (=on-going) ; to swim *against* the stream.
> *Along* (=on-long) ; *along* the river bank.
> *Among* (=on-gemang, or in a multitude) ; among the trees.
> *Around* (=on-round) ; to walk *around* the house.
> *Amidst* (=on-middle) ; he was one *amidst* the crowd.
> *Behind* (=by-hind) ; he stood *behind* the door.

Below (=by-low); he stood *below* the window.
Beneath (=by-neath); he dived *beneath* the water.
Beside (=by-side); he stood *beside* me.
Between (=by-twain); *between* the river banks.
Beyond (=by-yonder); the life *beyond* the grave.

4 **Prepositions formed from Participles.** A class of prepositions ending in *ing* has arisen from the Impersonal Absolute use of participles; such as, *concerning, touching, considering, regarding, owing to.*

On the Impersonal Absolute, see Chapter V, § 7, para. 6.

Owing to the long drought the crops died.
Nothing was settled *touching this* matter.

Sometimes it is an open question whether we should parse the word as a preposition or as a participle :—

He wrote me a letter *regarding* that point. (Here *regarding* may be parsed either as a preposition, or as a present participle qualifying the noun "letter." "That point" is therefore either the object to the preposition or the object to the verb "regarding.")

Again :—

Considering my previous good conduct, he pardoned me for this one fault.

(Here *considering* may be parsed either as a preposition, or as the present participle qualifying the pronoun "he.")

5. **During, notwithstanding, pending.** These were originally Absolute participles placed *after* some noun in the Nominative Absolute; but they are now prepositions placed *before* a noun in the Objective Case.

(1.) The summer during or enduring, (*Nominative Absolute,*) =while the summer endured or lasted,=during the summer (*Preposition with its Object.*)

(2.) His anger notwithstanding or not preventing me (*Nom. Absolute*); =while his anger did not withstand or prevent me,=notwithstanding his anger (*Preposition with Object.*)

(3) Fresh orders pending (*Nominative Absolute*),=while fresh orders were pending or held in suspense,=pending fresh orders. (*Preposition with its Object.*)

6. **Except, save, past.** These were originally past participles used absolutely. They have now become preposi-

tions by the same process as that described in the previous para.

All *except* one,=all, one being excepted.
All *save* one,=all, one being saved or reserved.
The hour *past* sunset,=the hour, sunset having passed.

7. Prepositional Phrases. Two or more words habitually thrown together in a prepositional sense may be called *Prepositional Phrases*:—

By means of; because of; in front of; in opposition to; in spite of; on account of; with reference to; with regard to; for the sake of; on behalf of; instead of; in lieu of; in the place of; in prospect of; with a view to; in the event of.

The phrase *on this side* is used as a preposition without *of*; as,

On this side the river.

The noun *despite* is sometimes used as a preposition for *in spite of*:—

Despite his riches, power, and pelf. —*Scott.*

§ 3.—Relations Expressed by Prepositions.

Prepositions (as has been already shown) are placed before nouns or pronouns to express the various different relations in which one thing may stand to another.

The more important of the relations expressed by Prepositions can be seen from the following examples :—

1. *Place, Situation, Circumstance.*

In. Stand *in* the water. He is *in* a bad temper.
Into. Go *into* the water. Water is changed *into* steam.
Through. Go *through* the door. He passed *through* many dangers.
Past or **beyond.** *Beyond* the boundary. This is *past* endurance.
On or **upon.** Sit *on* the box. *On* this condition I will trust you.
At. He is not *at* home. He was much *at* fault.
By. Sit *by* me. I will abide *by* my promise.
With. I will go *with* you. All *with* one exception failed.
Over or **above.** Air is *above* the earth. He spends *above* his income.
Below, or **under.** Snakes live *under* ground. The matter is *under* enquiry.
Behind. The dog is *behind* you. There is a smile *behind* his frown.
Before. Stand *before* the door. Duty *before* pleasure.

To. He has gone *to* England. This is much *to* your credit.
For. He starts *for* home. He worked hard *for* a prize.
From. He starts *from* home. We are now free *from* danger.
Of. He shot wide *of* the mark. He was robbed *of* his purse.
About. Walk *about* the streets. He went *about* his business.
Near. Come *near* the spot. His success is *near* my heart.
Along. The boats were tied *along* the shore.
Among or **amid.** Let us walk *amid* the trees. They quarrelled *among* themselves.
Between. *Between* the two banks of the river. He still halts *between* two opinions.
Up, down. The monkey ran *up* and *down* the tree.
Across. He sailed *across* the sea. Sit *across* the saddle.
Around, or **Round.** Describe a circle *round* a given centre.
Beside. He sat *beside* me. He is *beside* himself.
Besides. He has two sons in India *besides* one in England.
Against. It is not easy to swim *against* the stream.
Without. He stands *without* (outside) the gate. Men cannot live *without* food.
Within. He is *within* the house. This is not *within* my power.

2. *Time.*

In. He finished the work *in* ten days. He arrived *in* time.
Into. He slept late *into* the day.
Through. He has been a lazy man *through* or *throughout* his whole life.
Past, or **beyond.** He is now *past* or *beyond* the age of 40.
On. I will expect you *on* Monday next.
At. Bats fly out *at* night; but retire *at* daybreak.
By. The sun shines *by* day; the moon *by* night.
With. *With* the return of the hot winds the grass fades.
Above, or **over.** He was absent *above* or *over* two weeks.
Under. You will not finish that work *under* two months.
Behind, after. He arrived *behind* time. He returned *afte* many days.
Before. He commenced work *before* 7 o'clock a. m.
To. *To*-day, *to*-night, *to*-morrow. The train is not up *to* time.
For. He was made a prisoner *for* life.
From. They commence work daily *from* 10 o'clock.
About. It is now *about* 3 o'clock, p. m.
Between. He arrived *between* 4 and 5 o'clock, p. m.
During. I will remain here *during* your pleasure.
Pending. Nothing more can be done *pending* his arrival.
Till or **until.** They worked all day *till* sunset.
Within. This was finished *within* the time fixed.

Some Point of Time or Space.

3. When a point of time or space is to be expressed we use *at* or *on*; but when a wider extent of time or space is intended, we use *in*:—

> *At* Rome; but *in* Italy. The end is *at* hand (very close); the work is *in* hand (in a state of progress.) We knew him *at* a glance, as soon as he came *in* sight. The moon rose *at* 12 o'clock *in* the night. He lives *at* Nuddea *in* the province of Bengal.

Instrument, Agent.

4. To express the instrument or means employed for doing anything, we use *with*. But to express the person, agent, or doer through whom the action is done, we use *by*:—

> This book was written *by* me *with* a quill pen. The boat was tied *by* a sailor *with* a rope. The field was ploughed up *by* the peasant *with* a pair of oxen.

When the thing used in performing the action belongs to the object or person affected by the action, we use *by*:—

> He seized him *by* the throat. He led the horse *by* the reins. Bind him *by* the hand *with* manacles.

Cause.

5. The idea of cause is expressed by *from*, *of*, *through*, *for*, and by several prepositional phrases, such as *because of*, *owing to*, in *consequence of*.

> He almost died *of* fever. *Of* course he will be caught some day. He failed *through* inattention to work. He could not speak *for* grief. The crops failed *from*, (or *owing to*, or *because of*, or *in consequence of*) the want of rain.

The preposition *for* in the sense of cause is often preceded by the preposition *except* or *but*:—

> *Except for* your help or *but for* your help (=if you had not helped me), I should have been ruined.

Effect.

6. The idea of effect is expressed by the preposition *to*, and by no other :—

> *To* our great grief and surprise he was not successful. He was starved *to* death. He wasted his time *to* his ruin.

Exchange, Substitution.

7. The idea of exchange, or of one thing being taken or mistaken for another, is expressed by *for*, and by such phrases as *instead of, in the place of, in lieu of.*

> He gave me this *for* (or *in exchange for*) that. He was taken *for* a traveller. The cat was mistaken in the dark *for* a dog. This was meant *for* fun. Sixteen seers of wheat are sold *for* a rupee. He was taken *for* dead (=for a dead man.)

Opposition, Conflict, Contrariety.

8. The idea of opposition, conflict, etc., is expressed by *against*, and sometimes by *with*. The idea of defending or helping is expressed by *for*.

> You are acting *for* my interests and *against* your own. He led his army *against* the city, but the inhabitants fought bravely *for* their homes.
>
> One king fought *with* or *against* another. He is angry *with* me. He disputed that point *with* me. He grappled bravely *with* difficulties. He was offended *with* me unjustly.

N. B.—"With" is one of the most ambiguous prepositions in the English language. Sometimes it means "against," as in the examples already given. Sometimes it means companionship or friendly union; as "I will go *with* you;" "I made a contract *with* him." Sometimes it means "from or apart from," as in the phrase, "I differ *with* you," "I have parted *with* my horse," "I *with*draw (draw back or away) that remark," "he *with*held (held back or restrained) his hand."

The most common meaning of *with*, however, is union, nearness, etc ; and the opposite preposition to this is *without*.

> He came *with* his horse, but *without* his dog. *With* or *without* help we are certain to succeed.

Material, Quality, Contents.

10. To denote the *material* of which a thing is made, the *quality* of any person or thing, or the *contents* of any thing, we use the preposition *of*, and no other:—

> This house was built *of* unburnt clay, not *of* bricks. He is a man *of* much experience. I prefer a book *of* travels to one *of* fiction. A cup *of* water will often do a man more good than a bottle *of* wine. He did it as a labour *of* love, and not as a matter *of* duty. A wreath *of* roses.

Possession.

11. To denote possession we use the preposition *of*, and no other. But possession can also be denoted by the Possessive case, (subject to the conditions explained in Chapter II, § 3, para. 6.)

> The palace *of* the king (or the *king's* palace) was pulled down. The banks *of* the river were inundated. The laws *of* the Hindus are not the same as those *of* Mussulmans. The vote *of* the majority was against your proposal.

Apposition.

12. The idea of apposition is sometimes denoted by the preposition *of*:—

> The season *of* winter. The city *of* Calcutta. The continent *of* Europe. The horse was sold at a cost *of* 100 rupees. The island *of* Ceylon. The province *of* Bengal. The name *of* England. He is a brute *of* a man.

Contrast.

13. When one thing or state of things is mentioned in contrast with another, we express this relation by the prepositions *with*, *for*, *after*, *notwithstanding*, and sometimes by such phrases as *in spite of*, *despite*.

> *With* all his wealth (or *in spite of* all his wealth) he is still a discontented man. *For* all his promises he is a false man. *After* or *notwithstanding* all the advice I gave him he persisted in his folly.

Adaptation, Agreement.

14. When we wish to say that one thing or state of things is adapted to another, we express this relation by the preposition *after* or *to* :—

He was surnamed the Just *after* his character. This picture was painted *after* a good model. This tea is exactly *to* my taste. *To* all appearances he is seriously ill.

Subject of a Book, Speech, &c.

15. When we wish to describe the subject to which some book, speech, remark, &c., relates, we use the prepositions *of, on, about, concerning, as to, in regard to, &c.*

He spoke well *of* me. This is a book *on* or *about* proverbs. We must take advice *on* or *about* or *concerning* or *regarding* or *in regard to* that matter. I enquired *as to* whether he would return this evening or not.

Note.—The Prepositional phrase "as to" is probably an abridged or elliptical form, which has been substituted for "as *relates* to," the verb in the middle having been omitted. The full expression would be "*so far* as *it relates* to." The word "as," when it is preceded by the adverb "so," is a *conjunction*; when it is preceded by "such," it is a *Relative Pronoun*. Hence in the phrase "so far as it relates to," the "as" is a conjunction. But the conjunctive force of "as" has been lost in the mutilated phrase "as to." Hence the words "as to" must now be parsed together as making up a Prepositional phrase. In such a phrase we cannot parse the "as" separately.

Inference, Motive, Source.

16. When we wish to describe the fact from which we *infer* something, or the *motive* from which we do something, or the *source* from which something is derived, we use the preposition *from* :—

From what you tell me he must be a bad man. You can see *from* his manner that he is speaking the truth. (*Inference.*) He worked hard *from* a desire to earn his own living. That was all done *from* ill feeling. (*Motive.*) He spoke *from* his heart. He is sprung *from* noble ancestors. Dirty water comes *from* a dirty fountain. (*Source*).

Valuation or Rate.

17. The only preposition denoting valuation or rate is *at* :—

He lends out money *at* 6 per cent. This must be done *at* any rate, or *at* all risks, or *at* all hazards, or *at* all events.

Measure, Standard, or Amount.

18. When we wish to describe the amount or standard by which a thing is measured, we use the preposition *by* :—

Rice is sold *by* the maund, wine *by* the pint or quart. He is taller than you *by* two inches. He is a carpenter *by* trade, but not *by* caste.

Limit or Degree.

19. When we wish to express the limit or degree to which a thing is done, we use the preposition *to* :—

You shall pay me *to* the last farthing. He is ruined *to* all intents and purposes. That portrait is true *to* the life.

Proportion or Comparison.

20. When we wish to express the proportion between one quantity and another, we generally use the preposition *to* —

I will bet 4 *to* 1 on his failing As. 3 is *to* 6, so is 5 *to* 10. His conduct, though unkind, was kindness itself *to* yours.

After adjectives in the Comparative Degree we use *than*. This word, however, is a conjunction, and not a preposition, except when it stands before a Relative Pronoun, or when it occurs in such a phrase as "other than" :—

Belial, than *whom* a spirit more lewd
Fell not from heaven. —*Milton.*
No person *other than* (=different from, except) a graduate need apply for this post.
He loved you better *than I* (loved you.)
He loved you better *than* (he loved) *me*.

Preparation to meet some expected event.

The only preposition that denotes preparation or provision for the sake of meeting some expected event is *against*:—

> She made the house ready *against* the arrival of her husband. He saved up money *against* the evil day. Get all the implements collected and repaired *against* day-break. Be ready *against* the day of battle.

Occupation.

22. The prepositions denoting occupation are *at* and *about*:—

> Your may go *about* your business, (a rude form of dismissal.)
> Wist ye not that I must be *about* my Father's business?
> —*New Testament.*
> What are you *about*? (a rather rude way of asking what you are doing.)
> We all play *at* cricket. He is clever *at* translation. He was again caught *at* his old tricks.

Exception.

23. The above idea is expressed by *except*, *but*, or *save*.

> All the candidates *except* or *but* or *save* one were successful. *Except* for the help you gave me, I could not have escaped; or *but* for the help you gave me, &c.

Adjuration or Appeal.

24. The name of a thing or person used in making an oath is preceded by the preposition *by*:—

> I say unto you, swear not at all,—neither *by* heaven, for it is God's throne; nor *by* the earth, for it is God's footstool; nor *by* Jerusalem, for it is the city of the great king. Neither shalt thou swear *by* thy head; for thou canst not make one hair white or black. —*New Testament.*

Partition.

25. The idea of part, as distinct from whole, is expressed by the preposition *of*:—

> The children *of* the family (who make a part of the family.) The banks *of* the river. You *of* all men ought not to act thus. A few *of* the host were slain. He had a third *of* the estate. Many *of* the wounded did not recover. A poem *of* Milton's (one of Milton's poems.) He is something *of* a scholar (a scholar to some extent.)

Reference to some special point or quality.

26. When some special point or quality is referred to by an adjective, the preposition *of* or *in* is placed between the adjective and the noun :—

> Free *of* his money. Hard *of* heart. Dull *of* understanding. Lame *of* one leg. Short *of* money. Blind *of* one eye. Slow *of* hearing. Quick *of* speech. Timid *of* disposition. Weary *of* sport. Pure *of* heart. Violent *of* temper. Tired *of* work.
> Pure *in* heart. Poor *in* spirit. Blind *in* one eye. Lame *in* the left leg. Faithful *in* deed as well as *in* word. Strong *in* appearance, but not *in* fact. Learned *in* Sanskrit. Versed *in* science.

Separation, Distance.

27. The idea of separation is usually denoted by the preposition *from*. But it can also be expressed by *of*, or *off*, or *out of*:—

> He is *from* home (not inside his house.) That city is forty miles *from* here. Calcutta is not far *from* the sea. We are now within 3 miles *of* (at a distance *from*) the house. He was within an inch *of* being drowned. He was acquitted *of* that charge. He broke himself *of* that habit. Can you cure me *of* this disease? He shot wide *of* the mark. He was robbed *of* his purse. That book is clear *of* misprints, but not *of* misstatements of fact. He was disappointed *of* his hopes. The result fell short *of* our expectations.

Off. This preposition is more frequently used in reference to some point of space than *of*. The opposite to *off* is *on*, as we see in the Adverbial Phrase *off and on* (sometimes doing a thing, and sometimes not doing it.)

> He was thrown *off* the horse. The man seems to be *off* his head (insane) We are *off* duty to-day, but shall be *on* duty again to-morrow. Ceylon is an island *off* the southern coast (separated by a short distance from the southern coast) of India. He was taken *off* his guard. The boat went out to sea two miles *off* the shore. The sun gleamed *off* the edge of a dark cloud.

Out of. The opposite to this is "*in*," as we see in the

phrases, *in season and out of season, indoors and out of doors, in and out*, &c.

> The school is *out of* order. He is *out of* debt. The flute is *out of* tune. This custom has gone *out of* use. He is *out of* his mind (mad.) The grapes are *out of* reach. Your language is *out of* place. That book is *out of* print. His arm is *out of* joint. His dress is *out of* fashion. This plan is *out of* the question. We must get him *out of* that foolish habit.

Distinction.

28 The idea of distinguishing between one thing and another is expressed by "*from*."

> He scarcely knows one color *from* another. A blind man cannot tell black *from* white, light *from* darkness. I should not know him *from* his brother.

N. B.—In one exceptional instance "to" has come into use, where otherwise we should use "from."

> This color is different *to* that. (Here it would have seemed more proper to say "*from* that." This exceptional use of "to" occurs only after the adjective "different." Thus we say: "I differ *with* you or *from* you," not "I differ *to* you.")

Superiority, Inferiority.

29. The preposition "*above*" is commonly used to denote superiority, and "*beneath*" to denote inferiority of some kind.

> He is *above* (superior to) such a mean act. He is *above* suspecion (too good a man to deserve being suspected.) Such work is *beneath* me (too mean for a person of my rank, abilities, &c.) He married a wife *beneath* him (of lower rank than himself.) Man is *beneath* the angels (inferior to the angels.) His remarks are *beneath* notice, *beneath* contempt (not worth noticing or even despising.)

Authority, Subjection.

30. The preposition *over* is commonly used to denote

authority; while *under* commonly denotes subjection to authority.

God is Lord *over* all. He is *over* me (my superior in authority) The British army *under* Havelock marched into Lucknow. *Under* whose authority do you do this? Even kings are *under* the law (subject to the law.) He was transferred *under* the orders of A. He is quite *under* A's thumb (entirely subject to A.)

Direction towards an object or end.

31. Direction towards an object or end is expressed by the prepositions *at* or *on*.

He took his bow and aimed *at* the bird. He missed and all laughed *at* him Look *at* that star. Some one is pointing *at* you. He threw a stone *at* the bird. The axe was laid *at* the root of the tree. Do not shoot *at* the birds. He shouted *at* him to come. One man winked *at* the other. Do not mock *at* other men's failures This was his first attempt *at* English composition.

The man has been sent away *on* a message. The enemy marched *upon* the town. The dog made a violent attack *on* the stranger He has just started *on* a long tour. You are rather severe *on* the student He has hit *on* a good plan.

Examples (a.)

The answers to these examples contain a complete enumeration, under the heading of each preposition, of the main senses in which each preposition is used :—

1. Explain the meanings of "of" in the following sentences :—

1—What did he die *of*? . *Cause.*
2—What are you thinking *of*? ... *Concerning.*
3—*Of* what family is he sprung? .. *Source*
4—He is a man *of* strong passions .. *Quality.*
5—Send me a box *of* books . *Contents*
6—Lock up the money in a box *of* iron *Material*
7—It was wrong *of* you to say that .. *Reference.*
8—Do not tear the pages *of* that book *Part.*
9—He was deprived *of* his appointment, *Separation*
10—You *of* all persons should have known better ... ... *Among.*
11—Long may you see the light *of* the sun ... . *Possession.*
12—I want the sum *of* 100 rupees ... *Apposition.*

2. Explain the meaning of "with" in the following sentences :—

1—He arrived *with* all his luggage. . *Union, nearness.*
2—He killed the kite *with* a stone ... *Instrument.*
3—*With* all his wealth he is unhappy *Contrast.*
4—*With* the first fall of rain the frogs begin to croak .. ... *Time.*
5—I parted *with* my friend yesterday, *Separation.*
6—One king fought *with* another ... *Opposition.*
7—I heard of your failure *with* much regret ... ... *State.*

3. Explain the meanings of "in," in the following sentences :—

1—You may expect me *in* a few days, *Time.*
2—He is not *in* the house. ... ... *Place.*
3—He is *in* a bad temper ... ... *State.*
4—He is lame *in* one leg ... .. *Reference.*

4. Explain the meanings of "at" in the following sentences :—

1—He is not *at* home just now ... *Place.*
2—He will be at home *at* 4 o'clock .. *Time.*
3—*At* what price do you sell the horse? *Valuation.*
4—He was busy *at* that work all day *Occupation.*
5—He frowned *at* me for laughing *at* him ... ... *Direction.*
6—He is now quite *at* his ease . *State.*
7—They all stood up *at* the word of command ... ... *Cause with Time.*

5. Explain the meanings of "by" in the following sentences :—

1—Come and sit *by* me .. ... *Nearness.*
2—Always get up *by* sunrise ... *Time.*
3—He was fairly treated *by* me ... *Agent.*
4—Seize him *by* the neck ... ... *Instrument.*
5—He is cleverer than you *by* a good deal .. .. *Amount.*
6—He swore *by* the name of heaven. *Adjuration.*

6. Explain the meanings of "to" in the following sentences :—

1—He has returned *to* his father's house, *Place.*
2—You must go back *to*-night ... *Time.*
3—*To* all appearances he is tired ... *Adaptation.*
4—The chances are 3 *to* 1 ... *Proportion.*
5—They fought *to* the last man ... *Limit.*
6—*To* their utter disgust they failed, *Effect.*
7—They will come *to* dinner ...
He has come *to* see us ... } *Purpose.*

7. Explain the meanings of "from" in the following sentences :—

1—He is away *from* home .. ... *Place.*
2—You must begin *from* day-break .. ... *Time.*
3—He is sprung *from* noble ancestors ... *Source.*
4—*From* all we hear he is mad ... ... *Inference.*
5—That was all done *from* spite . ... *Motive.*
6—They almost died *from* hunger .. .. *Cause.*
7—You may know a fool *from* a wise man by his actions .. ... *Distinction.*

8. Explain the meanings of "for" in the following sentences :—

1—He will soon start *for* home *Direction*
2—He was imprisoned *for* life . *Time.*
3—*For* what offence was he imprisoned? *Cause.*
4—*For* all his learning he has no sense .. *Contrast.*
5—He sold his horse *for* a small sum .. *Exchange.*
6—He fought hard *for* his friends .. *On behalf of.*
7—Do not translate word *for* word *Conformity.*
8—This stuff is not fit *for* food ... *Purpose.*

9. Explain the meanings of "against" in the following sentences :—

1—He is leaning *against* the wall ... *Place*
2—Store up the grain *against* famine ... *Expectation*
3—He acted *against* his own interests .. *Opposition*
4—I won 4 prizes this year *against* 3 last year ... *Comparison.*

10. Explain the meanings of "through" in the following sentences :—

1—Bore a hole *through* the lid of the box .. *Place.*
2—He has passed *through* many troubles ... *State.*
3—He worked hard *through* the summer . *Time.*
4—*Through* your help I may succeed .. *Cause.*
5—This was all done *through* envy ... *Motive.*

11. Explain the meanings of "on" in the following sentences :—

1—I place my hand *on* the table .. *Place.*
2—He came here *on* Saturday last .. *Time.*
3—He lives *on* the kindness of his friends .. *Dependence.*
4—He was appointed *on* those terms. .. *Condition.*
5—They made no attack *on* my house ... *Direction.*

12. Explain the meanings of "above" in the following sentences :—

1—A sword was hanging *above* his head. ... *Place.*
2—He was absent *above* two weeks ... *Time.*
3—His expenses are *above* his income ... *Quantity.*
4—He is *above* such meanness ... *Superiority.*

13. Explain the meanings of "over" in the following sentences :—

1—The sun shines *over* the earth . *Place.*
2—He was absent *over* two weeks ... *Time*
3—His house is *over* the way *Other side.*
4—He is *over* me . *Authority.*

14. Explain the meanings of "under" in the following examples :—

1—There is a toad *under* the water ... ... *Place.*
2—You will not finish that *under* 10 days *Time.*
3—The army marched *under* Havelock. *Subjection.*
4—The matter is still *under* consideration *State.*

15. Explain the meanings of "beneath" in the following sentences :—

1—Let us rest *beneath* the shade . . . *Place.*
2—His conduct is *beneath* contempt . *Inferiority.*

16 Explain the meaning of *beside* and *besides* in the following sentences —

1—He is standing *beside* his mother .. *Nearness.*
2—He was *beside* himself with rage. *Outside.*
3 I have no friend *besides* yourself *Addition.*

17. Explain the meanings of "before" in the following sentences :—

1 He stands *before* the door .. *Place.*
2—He came *before* 10 o'clock . ... *Time.*
3—Death *before* dishonor. . . ... *Preference.*

18. Explain the meanings of "after" in the following sentences :—

1—I will enter *after* you .. .. *Sequence in place*
2—He arrived *after* dark ... .. *Sequence in time.*
3—*After* all you have said I believe you, *Sequence as effect.*
4—He is always seeking *after* wealth ... *Search.*
5—The man *after* God's own heart .. *Adaptation.*
6—*After* all the advice I gave him he adopted a contrary course ... ... *Contrast.*

19. Explain the meanings of "out of" in the following examples :—

1—The mouse jumped up *out of* its hole... *Place.*
2—I paid it *out of* my own pocket ... *Source.*
3—He said that *out of* ill-temper ... *Motive.*
4—He is *out of* his mind ... ... *Separation.*

20. Explain the meaning of "about" in the following sentences :—

1—He had a comforter *about* his neck ... *Place.*
2—He is *about* to be married ... ... *State.*
3—He went *about* his work in earnest ... *Occupation.*
4—I am fond of hearing *about* ships ... *Concerning.*

Note.—In example 2, the words "to be married" may be parsed as a Noun-Infinitive; and this Noun is the object to the preposition *about*, which signifies "nearness." "He is *near* the-state-of-being-married."

21. Explain the meanings of "into" in the following sentences :—

1—One stream flows *into* another ... ... *Place.*
2—He slept late *into* the day ... ... *Time.*
3—She burst *into* tears. Water is changed
into steam by heat ... ... *State.*

22. Explain the meanings of "beyond" or "past" in the following sentences :—

1—My house is *beyond* or *past* those hills, *Place.*
2—It is now half *past* two o'clock ... *Time.*
3—This is *past* or *beyond* endurance ... *State.*

23. Explain the meanings of "without" in the following sentences :—

1—He stood *without* the gate ... ... *Place.*
2—He came *without* his horse ... ... *Separation.*

24. Explain the meanings of "behind" in the following sentences :—

1—The cat ran *behind* its master ... ... *Place.*
2—The train is *behind* time ... ... *Time.*
3—There is a smile *behind* his frown ... *Concealment.*

25. Explain the meanings of "towards" in the following sentences :—

1—He is coming *towards* the house ... *Place.*
2—I will give something *towards* that object ... ... *Aim.*
3—It is now *towards* evening .. ... *Time.*

26. Explain the meanings of "within" in the following sentences :—

1—He always slept *within* doors ... ... *Place*
2—He will be here *within* 4 hours .. *Time.*
3—He is *within* call .. ... *Range.*

27. Explain the meanings of "near" in the following sentences :—

1—We went *near* the spot . . ... *Place.*
2—We arrived *near* the appointed hour ... *Time*
3—His success is *near* accomplishment *State*

28. Explain the meanings of "between" in the following sentences :—

1—The house is *between* two roads ... *Place*
2—It is now *between* four and five o'clock, *Time.*
3—How long halt ye *between* two opinions? *State*

Example (b.)

Insert Prepositions in the places where they have been omitted :—

1. The river, —which I went—my brother, abounds—fish: we took a boat and rowed—the stream—the opposite bank.
2. He promised to abide—the contract, and they relied—his honor —its fulfilment. But they were disappointed—their hopes, and found they could never trust their work—him again.
3. He lives—small cost, and he does so—abstaining—every kind of luxury and accustoming himself—humble fare such as is suitable—a person—small income.
4. The person who stood—the judge yesterday was accused—throwing a stone—his neighbour's window; but nothing more came —the matter, and he was acquitted—the charge imputed —him.
5. A man of honor will adhere—his convictions, and act—a sense —duty, even if men rail—him and think him weak—understanding and wanting—common sense.
6. The intentions—that man admit—no doubt: we must agree— his terms, whether we approve—them or not, and there is no reason to be anxious—the result.

7 Aim—doing you duty—all risks, and do not be uneasy in mind —the consequences.

8. He was much alarmed—what he had just heard, and alluded—it as soon as he arrived—my house and alighted—his carriage.

9 The ship anchored a little way—the shore, and an experienced man was at once appointed—the post of pilot—bringing her —port.

10 You must apologise—him—what you have done, even though the act was not done—any bad intention.

11. You will have to answer—your master—that mistake; and you may hope—pardon, if you ask—it—the proper way.

12 You can appeal - a higher court and apply—a fresh trial; but it will be wiser to appoint some man who is versed—such matters to act as arbitrator—you and the opposite party.

13 To continue arguing and disputing—a man, when you are certain that he will not assent—your own views, is not wise —you : men will only blame you—wasting your time, and ascribe your conduct—obstinacy.

14 While he was battling—the sea, the wind rose and the waves beat—the shore · he begged—help—those persons who were—the boat, and these pulled him up—the water.

15 I have bestowed great attention—that subject; and I bethought myself—one thing, namely, that a bridge must be built at once—the river, and that this bridge should be—iron, not—wood or brick

16 One man boasts—his wealth, another brags—his wisdom : we cannot help blushing—persons who are so wanting—modesty and who cannot blush—their own faults.

17 India borders—Burma, and is separated—it partly—the Bay of Bengal which lies—them, and partly—a line—mountains situated—the north—the Bay.

18 A man should not brood—his troubles, however much he may be burdened—them

19 She burst—tears, when she found that he cared not—her affection.

20 A drowning man will catch—a straw; and if he escapes, you need not caution him again—the danger of throwing himself—the water and bathing—his depth

21 Cease—speaking evil—others, and cling—charity. You will yourself be judged—your judgment—others.

22 It is useless to clamour—what we cannot have Do not complain —your lot Be content—what you have already, and leave the future—Providence.

23 An eye—an eye, and a tooth—a tooth: this was the old law, but it has now been superseded—the duty—forgiveness.

24. They brought a complaint—the magistrate—their neighbour, who —asking their consent had dug a hole almost—the foundations—their house and thus rendered it unsafe—a dwelling place. The magistrate complied—their request and issued a summons—him. He sentenced them—a fine—trespass.
25. A man who confides—a friend will not conceal anything—him, but will confer—him—matters—any real importance. Secrecy does not conduce—friendship. Never quarrel—a friend—trifles.
26. The wing—a bird corresponds—the arm—a man.
27 I had a long correspondence—him—the wisdom of conforming—custom; but he did not yield—my advice, and remained unconvinced—his error A man convinced—his will is—the same opinion still, as you know -the proverb. You cannot cure a man—his prejudices.
28 The culprit craved—pardon, and succeeded—getting it.
29. One cock crowed—the other—its victory, as one man boasts—having conquered another, and exults—his defeated rival
30 You cannot compete—a man who is superior—yourself—resources. It is better to acquiesce—the fact that he has the advantage—you.

That trader there, who deals—cotton goods, has dealt hardly—his customers, and they must not concede—his demands—future

32. Whatever you decide—, stick—it and do your best difficulties.
33 I understand—all I hear that, though he despairs—success, nothing will deter him—his purpose.
34 I differ—you—the exact point - which dogs differ—wolves in shape or kind But there is no difference of opinion—their comparative fierceness.
35. He is so weak that all food disagrees—him. Care must be taken that he does not die—weakness.
36. He was deprived—that very thing,—which he delighted most.
37 I depended—his coming—4 o'clock ; but—all the hopes I had formed he deviated—his purpose and did nothing to defend me—injustice.
38 I disapprove—your way—working, and must therefore dispense -your services
39. A blind man cannot distinguish light—darkness. Death does not distinguish—rich and poor.
40. I can divide this apple—two persons, but it is too small to be divided—forty ; for it cannot be divided—40 parts.
41 When they had disposed—all their wares, there was a dispute—the profits, each man dissenting—the other.
42 Dissuade him— this folly, if you can : but I fear he is weak—his head—constant overwork and anxiety.

43. I will have nothing to do—a man, who tries to domineer—every one and cavils—every thing which does not coincide—his own opinion.
44. More things are wrought—prayer than this world dreams—.
45. He dwells—a simple-minded people,—the Kalpi village,—the northern part—the district.
46. He dwelt—a long time—that subject; but no one really knew what he was driving—.
47. He embarked—board the steamer, which was to take him —India, where we intended to enter—some kind—trade. He was more popular than most men—the people of the country
48. —some places the sea encroaches—the land; —others the land gains—the sea.
49. As soon as he emerged—poverty, he entered—partnership—a man—wealth; and the two then entered—a grand commercial career.
50. I will exchange this book—you—another, if you have a good one to offer—exchange.
51. He rejoiced—his success, and exulted his fallen rival.
52. I am not familiar—that subject; so I cannot fall in—your views, or engage—this controversy any longer.
53. He fought—the robber—his life. The Spaniards allied—the English fought—the French—what is called the Peninsular war.
54 While the cat was running—the mouse, the mouse ran—its hole and freed itself—danger.
55. Be so good as to furnish me—a copy of that letter. Furnish medicine—the sick.
56. A glance—this letter will convince you—its contents that he is grasping—your money Every one will grieve—your loss.
57. He increased—wisdom—the increase of age, and at last grew—the follies of his boyhood and youth. Thus—degrees he rose—eminence—his profession.
58. A young man should be—his guard—bad company, and beware —falling—their evil ways.
59. He loitered—this place—the greater part—the day, sometimes leaning—the wall, and sometimes strolling—the opposite side —the street.
60. Madagascar is an island—the west coast of Africa.
61. We must be rid—this difficult business at once. Let us enquire— the danger; and be ready—the evil day.
62. Your words are strange and quite—my comprehension. It is foolish to say what no one can understand, and I thought you were—such folly.
63. All men should follow—truth; for if truth fails—first, it will prevail—last, and triumph—falsehood.

64. He offered his horse—a low price, and it was sold—the first bid made—the auctioneer—one—the persons present.
65 He is not a true man: there is a secret meaning—his words.
66 Some said he was mad or—himself.
67 They halted—two opinions, and quarrelled—themselves.
68. He struck the boy—a whip, and then had him beaten—one of the masters
69 I will stand—you in this matter; the difficulties will disappear one—one.
70. I took that man—a rogue, because he asked 2 rupees—a hat which was not fit—use.
71. He was bruised—head—foot: but he is now free—danger.
72. You may know a dog—a wolf—the slant—the eye—the animal last named
73 It was kind—you to say that; for every one speaks—me as being a rogue—a lawyer
74. Your conduct is bad, indeed it is—contempt; and your honesty is not—suspicion.
75. He ruled—his people—great justice, but not—some severity—those who offended—the law. He was popular—his subjects—the whole, although he was never lenient—habitual offenders.
76 They will fight—the last man, and—my mind they will gain the day.
77. I learnt—my surprise that the book I gave him was not—his taste.

CHAPTER VIII.—CONJUNCTIONS.

§ 1.—DEFINITION AND CLASSIFICATION OF CONJUNCTIONS.

1. A **Conjunction** is a word used for *joining* and for no other purpose.

It may join (*a*) one word or phrase to another word or phrase, or (*b*) one sentence to another sentence :—

The cat slowly *and* silently approaches the mouse.
(Here two adverbs are joined by *and.*)
He was of good temper, *but* in bad health
(Here two phrases are joined by *but*.)
I trust his word, *because* he is truthful
(Here two sentences are joined by *because*.)

2 A Conjunction never *governs* an object, as a preposition does

A Conjunction never *qualifies* a word, as an adverb does

It simply *joins* words or sentences.

Hence if the same word can be an Adverb in one place, a Preposition in another, or a Conjunction in another, there ought to be no difficulty in distinguishing them :—

I have seen this man *before*	...	(*Adverb*)
He stood *before* the door	..	(*Preposition*)
The rain fell *before* we reached home	...	(*Conjunction.*)

3. Conjunctions are sub-divided into two main classes :

I. **Co-ordinative**, so called because they join sentences of co-ordinate, (that is, of *equal*), rank :—

II. **Subordinative**, so called because they join a *subordinate* or dependent sentence to a *principal* sentence, (that is, to a sentence of higher rank.)

Besides these two great classes, there is a sub-class which can be called **Relative** Conjunctions. **These have some distinct properties of their own ; but they come under the main head of Subordinative.**

§ 2.—CO-ORDINATIVE CONJUNCTIONS.

1. *Sentences are said to be of* **Co-ordinate** *or* **equal** *rank, when they assert facts which are independent of each other.*

2. Sentences of equal rank can be combined together in 4 different ways, and this gives rise to 4 different kinds of Co-ordinative Conjunctions :—

(*a.*) **Cumulative** By these one statement or fact is simply *added* to another. (In some grammars these are called "Copulative," because they couple or combine the meanings of two words or two sentences)

(*b*) **Alternative**. These are called Alternative conjunctions, because they offer an alternative or *choice* between two or more things. By these conjunctions one statement or fact is made to *exclude* the other.

(*c.*) Conjunctions of **Contrast**. By these one statement or fact is *contrasted* with another. (In some grammars these are called "Disjunctive," because they disjoin or distinguish the meanings of two words or sentences.)

(*d.*) Conjunctions of **Inference**. By these one statement or fact is *inferred* or proved from another.

EXAMPLES OF THE FOUR KINDS.

	First Sentence.	*Second Sentence.*	
(1)	He finished his work,	*and* departed ...	(*Cumul.*)
(2)	*Either* he must go,	*or* I (must go) ...	(*Altern.*)
(3)	He had his full pay,	*but* he was not satisfied,	(*Contrast.*)
(4.)	They were paid double,	*therefore* they were much pleased, ...	(*Inference*)

Now if we cut out the conjunctions, we find that each of the above sentences asserts an *independent* fact, and can stand by itself :—

(1.)	He finished his work.	He departed.
(2)	He must go.	I must go.
(3.)	He had his full pay.	He was not satisfied.
(4.)	They were paid double.	They were much pleased.

(a.) CUMULATIVE CONJUNCTIONS.

(One statement or fact simply added to another.)

3. **And.** This is the chief conjunction of the class under notice, and is more frequently used than any other It expresses the idea of adding or combining in its simplest form :—

(1) My brother *and* I each won a prize. (Here two *words* are added together.)

(2.) That prize was given me as a reward for industry, *and* at a cost of six rupees. (Here two *phrases* are added together)

(3) Of those two brothers the elder received a prize, *and* the younger was promoted (Here two *sentences* are added together)

4 **Both, and.** This is a *strong* or *emphatic* way of expressing the union of two words or two sentences :—

(1) He is *both* a fool *and* a knave (Here two *words* are added together He is not a fool only, not a knave only, but both at once)

(2) He was *both* degraded from his class, *and* expelled for one year from the school. (Here two *sentences* are added together.)

5. **Also, too** These Conjunctions have the same emphasizing force as the foregoing. They generally stand *after* the second of the two words or sentences :—

(1) He is guilty, and you *also*, (=Both he and you are guilty ; one is as guilty as the other)

(2) A fool and a knave *too*, (=both a fool and a knave.)

(3) A fool *and also* a knave, (=both a fool and a knave)

(a) Where your treasure is, there will your heart be *also* (both your treasure and your heart will be in the same place.)

—*New Testament*

6 **As well as, no less than.** (These might be called Conjunctional *Phrases*.) In adding one word or sentence to another, they give emphasis to the *first* of the two.

(1) He *as well as* you is guilty, (=He is guilty as well as you are guilty.)

(2.) He *no less than* you is guilty, (=He is guilty *no less than* you are guilty.)

7. **Not only, but or but also.** In adding one word or sentence to another, these give emphasis to the *second* of the two.

> (1.) *Not only* I, *but* all other men declare this to be true.
> (2.) That man was *not only* accused of the crime, *but also* convicted of it by the magistrate.

8. **Moreover, besides, further, furthermore.** These Conjunctions have the same meaning as "and"; but they are especially used for making a break or pause after what has been previously said, and are therefore preceded by a semicolon, colon, or full stop A comma is not sufficient.

> He was convicted of that crime in court; *moreover*, or *besides*, or *further* his own friends believed that he was guilty.

It will thus be seen that by these conjunctions a new remark is introduced in *continuation* or confirmation of a previous one.

9 **Likewise.** This Conjunction, (like the three last named) introduces a second sentence in *continuation* of a previous one; but it also implies that there is some *resemblance* between their meanings:—

> For he seeth that wise men die; *likewise* the fool and the brutish person perish.
>
> —*Old Testament.*

10. **Now.** This Conjunction, (which must not be confounded with the Adverb of Time,) introduces a new remark in *explanation*, (not simply in continuation,) of a previous one:—

> And Pilate said unto them, "will ye have this man or Barabbas?" They answered, "not this man, but Barabbas." *Now* Barabbas was a robber.
>
> —*New Testament.*

11. **Well.** This word, (when it is used as a Conjunction, and not as a Adverb,) implies that what has been

previously said is "so far, so good," and that a new remark may now be made in some other direction :—

> You have finished the work that was given you ;—*well*, you have done a good deal better than you usually do, and I am much pleased with your improvement

(b.) ALTERNATIVE CONJUNCTIONS.

(One statement or fact excluded by another.)

12. **Either, or.** This is the opposite pair to "both, and." It generally offers two, but sometimes three, contingencies :—

> (1) That animal swimming in the water is *either* a serpent *or* a fish. (It must be one or the other; it cannot be both.)
> (2.) He stood so low in his class at the end of the year, that he must have been *either* lazy *or* stupid *or* in a bad state of health. (Here the choice lies between three, and not two, contingencies)
> (3) *Either* this man sinned, *or* his parents.
> —*New Testament.*

13. **Neither, nor.** This pair is merely the negative to the foregoing, and shows that *no* alternative or choice exists, both or all contingencies being equally excluded:—

> (1.) *Neither* this man sinned, *nor* his parents.
> (2.) He was *neither* lazy *nor* stupid *nor* in bad health; but he was engaged all the year in doing other work.

Note 1.—"Nor" sometimes means the same as *and not* In this case it is a Cumulative Conjunction, and not an Alternative one :—

> He started on his journey; *nor* did he loiter (=*and* he did *not* loiter) on the way.

Note 2.—"Or" is sometimes used to express a synonym. In this case it still belongs to the class of Alternative, because it signifies that the speaker or writer has the choice or alternative between two difficult words :—

> The tone *or* tenor of his letter is severe.

14. **Otherwise, else, or** These three conjunctions all mean the same thing. They are used for showing that

a certain thing will happen or would have happened, if something else does not happen or had not happened first.

> I met him as he was leaving his house; *otherwise, else, or*, I should not have found out where he lived. (=If I had not met him at that moment, I should not have found out, &c.

(c.) CONJUNCTIONS OF CONTRAST.

(*One statement or fact contrasted with another.*)

15. **But** This is the chief conjunction of the class under notice. *But* is the opposite to *and*; for *and* implies that the joined words or sentences are of kindred meaning, while *but* implies that they are of different or contrasted meanings.

> He is sad, *but* hopeful. (To say, "he is sad *and* hopeful" would be nonsense, because the state of sadness does not ordinarily co exist with one of hope)

16. **Still, yet, but yet**. These are used in the same sense as "but."

> He is immensely rich; *still*, or *yet*, or *but yet* he is not contented

17. **Nevertheless**. This conjunction has the same meaning as those already named, but it is especially used for making a *break* or *pause* after what has been previously said, and is therefore preceded by a semicolon, colon, or full stop. A comma is not sufficient. It may stand either at the beginning, or at the end of its own sentence, but is not often placed in the middle.

> All men were against him; *nevertheless* he kept his courage to the last
>
> All men were against him: he kept his courage to the last *nevertheless*

18. **However**. This is used in the same way as "nevertheless", but it almost always stands in the middle of its sentence:—

> All men were against him; he kept his courage *however* to the last

The same meaning can be expressed by certain phrases which might be parsed as Conjunctions or Conjunctional phrases :—*At the same time, for all that, in spite of that, notwithstanding that.*

> All men were against him ; *at the same time* (=*for all that* &c,) he never lost his courage.

19. **Whereas, while.** These conjunctions mean "but on the contrary," and are used for balancing one statement against another by way of *antithesis* or *contrast* ; and hence they are the opposites to "likewise," which is used for balancing one statement against another by way of *resemblance* or *confirmation* :—

> Men of understanding seek after truth ; *whereas* or *while* fools despise knowledge.
>
> —*Old Testament.*

20. **Only.** This word, (when it is used as a Conjunction, and not as an Adverb,) is a short and emphatic way of saying that *some exception* must be made to the previous statement :—

> (1.) Go wherever you like ; *only* do not stay here.
>
> (2.) He possessed every quality required for success ; *only* he was slow in making up his mind.

21. **Indeed, but.** These go together as a pair. They emphasize the contrast between the first and the second statement.

> The robbers *indeed* were caught and convicted ; *but* nothing that they had stolen could be found.

22. There are certain words and phrases signifying **Time** or **Place**, which when they stand *alone* are simply Adverbs. But when they are used *in pairs* for the sake of contrasting one time with another time, or one place with another place, they may be included among Conjunctions, since they join one sentence to another by way of contrast.

> (1.) On the battle-field there was a dead body *here* (=in one place), and a dying man *there* (=in another place.)
>
> (2.) *On the one side* all was quiet ; *on the other* there was nothing but confusion and disorder.

(3.) *On the one hand* he spoke the truth; *on the other* he broke a secret. (This might be written :—" He spoke the truth *indeed*, *but* in doing so he broke a secret.)

(4.) *Now* (=at one time) he laughs, *then* (=at another time) he cries.

(*d.*) CONJUNCTIONS OF INFERENCE OR CAUSATION.

(*One statement or fact inferred from another.*)

23. **Therefore.** This is one of the chief conjunctions of the class under notice, and can be prefixed either to a word or to a sentence :—

(1.) He is an active and *therefore* a healthy man.
(Here " healthy " is inferred as a consequence or result of " active." If he is active, it may be *inferred* or taken as a *consequence* that he is also healthy.)

(2.) He was found guilty of the crime, and *therefore* he was hanged. (Here two sentences are joined).

The other conjunctions of Inference mean much the same as " therefore."

(1.) He was ordered to come, and *consequently* (or *in consequence*) he came.

(2.) The boy is deaf, and *hence* (or *whence*=*and hence*) he is also dumb.

3.) He is guilty; *wherefore* (=and therefore) he must be punished.

24. **Then, so, so then.**—These all imply the same thing as " therefore," but in a *weaker* sense.

Then, (which here must not be confounded with the Adverb of Time,) never stands as the first word in its sentence :—

We were told to start at four; at four o'clock *then* (=a weak sense of *therefore*,) we got up and went.

So, (which here must not be confounded with the adverb " so "=" in this or that manner ") stands at the beginning of its sentence :—

We were told to start at four; *so* we got up at that hour and started.

So then. This phrase must also stand at the beginning of the sentence :—

It is time to go; *so then* we must not wait here any longer.

25. **For.** This conjunction is not less important than "therefore." Both imply an inference of one statement from another, but with this difference :—"Therefore" belongs to the *inferred* statement; while "for" belongs to the *inferring* one.

(*a.*) *Inferring Statement.*	... *Inferred Statement.*
All men are mortal;	.. *therefore* he will die some day.
(*b.*) *Inferred Statement*	... *Inferring Statement.*
He will die some day;	... *for* all men are mortal.

Note.—The difference of place between "for," and "therefore" follows from the derivation of the word "therefore." "*Therefore*="*there* for,"="for *there*,"="for *that reason.*"

So when we say "all men are mortal," we can add, "for that reason (=*therefore*) he will die some day."

Practice in Co-ordinative Conjunctions.

Insert Co-ordinative Conjunctions in the places indicated by—

1. Hear the opinions of other men, —form thine own judgment.
2. He was not surpassed—by you—any one else.
3. We have—heard—read about that matter,—we are in total ignorance., and unable to form an opinion.
4. We see poverty—, and prosperity—
5. He blamed them for their rashness, —relieved their wants.
6. The flowers have come out before the season; —I have never seen such a thing before.
7. They were defeated indeed,—not disgraced.
8. He came upon me very suddenly, —I had no time to run off—hide.
9. You are not a man to quarrel,—you had better come to terms.
10. Glamis hath murdered sleep; —he shall sleep no more.
11. The approach of the horsemen was now beyond doubt; —a cloud of dust was seen in the distance,—a tramping of horses' feet was distinctly heard.
12. In the discharge of his duty he was a kind—a just man.
13. The sound of a gun near at hand startled—my horse—myself.

14. Stone walls do not make a prison,—iron bars a cage.
15. The rain comes—goes in slight showers; —the heavy rains have not yet set in.
16. My own house—yours is built of good lime—burnt brick,—it will not crumble to pieces sooner than yours.
17. He has given each of you a sum of money; —he has left you all his books—all his gardens.
18. Julius Cæsar was murdered in Rome by a gang of conspirators; —Julius Cæsar was the first of the Roman Emperors.
19 He fell suddenly down in a fainting fit; several persons rushed forward to support him; —they were too late.
20. He has run away with all the money entrusted to him; —what steps shall we take? Shall we search for him ourselves,—shall we employ the police?
21 Civil wars have been marked—by the fierceness—by the stubborn pertinacity of the contending parties.
22. Heaven and earth may pass away;—my words shall never pass away.
23. My son last term was—idle—in bad health; —he was not promoted at the end of the term.
24. He paid off his debt in time;—he would certainly have been imprisoned for debt.
25. He declared he would never forsake his post;—he fled away at the first sign of danger.
26. Prince Azgid was good-natured, handsome, and clever; —he was of rather a timid disposition.
27 This poor man must be off his head; —he laughs at one time and weeps at another.
28 The temple stands in the middle of a fine masonry tank, —a marble bridge leads up to it: —this temple was built by an ancient Hindu Raja.
29. Do not take any part—in his amusements—his plots; —you will get into trouble by being in his company.
30. They were determined to obtain his consent—by flattering,—by force,—by persuasion; —they never succeeded after all.
31. My father made me go to school regularly every day; —I should not now be so successful in life as I am.
32. He was so shocked at the sad news that he—spoke—wept,—went away in silence,—was not seen again that day.
33. I hope you will remember to be just—generous to those who are dependent on you.
34. I must speak out; —I shall blame myself ever afterwards.
35. He is a worthless fellow, possessed—of ability—industry—honesty—common sense;—what sort of punishment can be inflicted on such a creature?
36. Give thine ear to every man,—thy voice to few.

37. That was no dream; —I was wide awake at the time,—I had not even taken off my clothes for the night.
38. The hole is square;—the pole is round;—the latter will not fit into the former.
39. I expect it will rain to-day; —the sky was very red at sunrise, —this is usually a sign of rain.
40. I have never read the book you speak of; —I cannot say that it is—dry—interesting.

§ 3.—SUBORDINATIVE CONJUNCTIONS.

1. ONE sentence is said to be *subordinate* to another, when it depends upon the other for its meaning, and does not make a complete sense by itself.

The Dependent sentence is that to which some Subordinative Conjunction is prefixed.

The Principal sentence is that on which the subordinate or inferior sentence depends.

Principal.	*Conjunction.*	*Dependent.*
I will read that book,	if	you advise me.

Here the sentence "you advise me" is dependent on the Principal sentence "I will read that book," and the subordinative conjunction *if* joins the two sentences together.

First Sentence.	*Conjunction.*	*Second sentence.*
I will read that book,	and	you can read it too.

Here the second sentence "you can read it too," is of co-ordinate or equal rank to the first sentence "I will read that book," and does not in any way depend upon it. The two sentences are joined together by the Co-ordinative Conjunction *and*.

2. What are the different modes, in which one sentence can be made to depend on another?

The answer to this question will show what are the different kinds of Subordinative Conjunctions.

The chief modes of dependence are nine in number:—

(*a*) Apposition, (*b*) Inference or Causation, (*c*) Effect, (*d*) Purpose, (*e*) Condition, (*f*) Contrast, (*g*) Comparison, (*h*) Extent or Manner, (*i*) Time.

Hence there are 9 different kinds of Co-ordinative con-

junctions; that is, there are nine different modes in which one sentence can be made to depend upon another.

Besides these 9, there are a few other modes of dependence expressed by Relative conjunctions, which will be explained hereafter.

3. (*a.*) **Apposition.** This is the simplest mode of dependence that can be put into words. The Dependent sentence is preceded by *that*, and is in apposition to some noun expressed or understood :—

Principal.	*Dependent.*
He told us (the fact,)	*that* rain had fallen.
We heard (the news,	*that* he intended to come.
He wrote to us (to the effect,)	*that* he had arrived safely.
He made a promise,	*that* he would return soon.

The Dependent sentence in the above examples is in apposition to the noun in brackets; and this noun might be either omitted or expressed; but according to English idiom it is generally omitted.

4. "**But that,**" or "**but.**" After verbs of "believing," *provided they have a negative attached to them,* we place "but that" or "but" in front of the Dependent clause.

> I cannot believe *but that, or but* (=anything except that) he was absent. (Here the word *but* is a preposition signifying "except.")

The "*but*" can be placed equally well before the Principal Verb; and thus the sentence might be written as below:

> I cannot *but* believe *that* he was absent.
> (I cannot believe anything *except* to believe that he was absent.)

5. (*b.*) **Inference** or **Causation.** Here the Dependent sentence gives the *cause* or *reason* of what has been stated in the Principal Sentence :—

Principal.		*Dependent.*
He will succeed,	...	*because* he has worked hard.
I will do this,	...	*since* you desire it.
Let us go to bed,	...	*as* it is now late.
Take what you can,	...	*seeing that* you cannot get all.
He feels tired,	...	*considering that* he had no sleep.

The words **forasmuch as, inasmuch as**, are Conjunctional Phrases, which have the same meaning as the foregoing. But these are seldom or never used except in a preamble (or introductory sentence) to some book or legal document. Thus the Gospel of St. Luke begins with the following words :—

> Forasmuch as many have taken in hand to draw up a narrative, &c. —*New Testament.*

The word **whereas** introduces the preamble to every new law that is passed, giving the *reason* of the law and showing the evils to be removed by it. But in all other cases this conjunction is a *co-ordinative*, and not a subordinative one, and is used in the sense shown above in para. 19 as a conjunction of Contrast.

6. (*c.*) **Effect.** Here the Dependent sentence points out the *effect* produced by what is said to have happened in the Principal Sentence :—

Principal.		*Dependent.*
He went on talking,	...	*till* he was quite tired.
He worked *so* hard,	...	*that* he was quite tired.

7. (*d.*) **Purpose.** Here the Dependent sentence mentions the *purpose*, for the sake of which some action is said to have been done in the Principal Sentence :—

Principal.		*Dependent.*
Men work,	...	*that* they may earn a living.
He took medicine,	...	*in order that* he might recover.
He took medicine,	...	*so that* he might recover.
He walked with a cane,	...	*lest* he should stumble.

Observe that "may" or "might" is used after *that, in order that,* and *so that*; but "should" is always used after *lest*. *Lest* expresses an end to be avoided. *That,* &c., expresses an end to be gained. *Lest* means the same as *that not.*

8. (*e.*) **Condition.** Here the Dependent Sentence points out the *condition*, on which the statement in the Principal Sentence is made :—

Principal.		*Dependent.*
I will do this,	...	... *if* I am allowed.
They threatened to beat him,		*unless* he confessed (= if he did not confess.)
We shall have fine crops,		*supposing that* the rain falls in time.

I agree to these terms, ... *provided* or *provided that* you will sign your name.
He gave a sudden start, ... *as if* he had been shot (=as he would have done, if he had been shot.)
You must leave the room, ... *whether* you wish it *or no*, (=you must leave the room under any condition whatever.)

9. (*f.*) **Contrast.** Here the fact stated in the Dependent sentence is contrasted with that stated in the Principal sentence :—

Principal.		*Dependent.*
He is an honest man,	...	*though* or *although* he is poor.
He will never succeed,		*however* much he may try.
He was not contented,	..	*however* rich he became.
He was not refreshed,	...	*notwithstanding that* he slept long.

Note 1.—The conjunction "however," when it is *co-ordinative*, stands alone, (see above para. 18) and is generally placed somewhere in the middle of its sentence. But when it is *subordinative* it must be attached to some adverb as "much" or to some adjective as "rich," and is always placed at the beginning of its sentence :—

Note 2.—The conjunction "though" can be used as a *co ordinative* one at the end of a sentence :—

He is poor: he is an honest man, *though*. (Here "though"= but yet. He is poor ; but yet he is honest)

10. "**Though, yet**"—These often go together as a pair. The word "yet" attached to the Principal Sentence gives additional emphasis to the contrast, and the Dependent Sentence is placed first:—

Dependent.	*Principal.*
1. *Though* he punish me,	... *yet* will I trust in him.
2. *Though* he denies it,	... *yet* no one believes his word.

Observe that a *doubt* or *supposition* is expressed after "*though*" in example (1) and therefore the verb following is in the Subjunctive Mood ; but in example (2) *a fact* is expressed, and therefore the verb is in the Indicative.

11. (*g.*) **Comparison.** Here some quality mentioned in the Principal Sentence is *compared* with the same or some other quality mentioned in the Dependent sentence.

"**As, as.**" These are the words used, when the compared qualities are said to be *equal*. (This represents the Positive Degree of Adjectives, Adverbs, and Participles.)

The Same Quality Compared.

He is *as* clever *as* I (am.)
He likes you *as much as* I (like you.)
He likes you *as much as* me (as he likes me.)

Different Qualities Compared.

The sea is *as* deep *as* the mountains are high.
He is *as* good *as* he is wise. (=He is no less good than he is wise.)

12. "**Than.**" This is used when the compared qualities are said to be unequal. (This represents the Comparative Degree of Adjectives, Adverbs, and Participles. The Superlative Degree has no Conjunction adapted to it.)

The Same Quality Compared.

He is more (or less) clever *than* I (am.)
He likes you more (or less) *than* I (like you.)
He likes you more (or less)*than* me (he likes me.)

Different Qualities Compared.

The sea is deeper *than* the mountains are high.
He is more wise *than* (he is) good.
He is less good *than* (he is) wise.

But "than" is a Preposition, and not a Conjunction, when it is prefixed to the Relative Pronoun:

This is my son, *than whom* a more industrious boy does not exist.

It is also a Preposition in such a phrase as *other than*:—

He would read no books other *than* novels.
(Here *other than*=*different from*, and "than," being equivalent to "from," here a preposition.)

13. (*h.*) Extent or Manner. These words do not at all mean the same thing; but the two ideas are often mixed together in the Conjunction "as":—

Principal.	*Dependent.*
Men will reap, ...	*as* (=to what extent and in what manner) they sow
I will treat you,...	*as* (=to what extent or in what manner of kindness, &c.,) you treat me.
They did, ..	*as* (=to what extent and in what manner) they were told
This is not true, .	*so far as* I can find out.
He will do, ...	*according as* he promised.
He chose the men,	*according as* they were strong or weak.

As, so. These often go together as a pair, with the Dependent Sentence standing first:—

Dependent.	*Principal.*
As men sow, .	*so* will they also reap.

14. (*i.*) Time. Here the Dependent Sentence describes the *time* of the event referred to in the Principal Sentence

Time simultaneous.

Principal.	*Dependent*
He called at the house, ...	*as* the clock struck four.
I will leave the room, .	*as soon as* you open the door.
You can hold the horse,	*while* I bring the saddle.

Time before.

Principal.	*Dependent.*
He worked very hard, ...	*before* he succeeded.
You have much to do, ..	*ere* you can gain your end.
He remained a minor, ..	*until* he was 17 years old.

Time after.

Principal.	*Dependent.*
He returned home, ...	*after* he had done the work.
He has been very weak, ..	*since* he was taken sick.

Time how long.

Principal.	*Dependent.*
The sun will rise, ...	*while* the world lasts.
No one can harm us, ...	*so long as* we remain friends.

Relative Cojunctions.

15. The **Relative** Conjunctions are :—*When, why, where, whence, whither, how, whether.*

These are a sub-class of Subordinative Conjunctions.

16. They are called *Relative* Conjunctions for two reasons:—(1) because they are formed or derived from the Relative Pronoun "who" or "what," and (2) because in any sentence, in which they may happen to be used, they can be broken up into a Relative Pronoun and its Antecedent without altering in any way the meaning of the sentence.

17. The same words (omitting the last, "whether") can also be used as Interrogative Adverbs: (see Chapter VI, § 2, para. 17.) What, then, is the difference?

They are *Adverbs*, when they are used for asking questions.

They are *Conjunctions*, when they are used for joining sentences.*

18. The modes of dependence denoted by these conjunctions will be seen from the following examples:—

Time.

Principal.	*Dependent.*
He remained silent,	*when* (= as soon as) he heard that.
He feels sad,	*whenever* (= at any time in which) he thinks of his lost friend.

Contrast.

Principal.	*Dependent.*
He sold that house,	*when* (= although) it was the best he had.

* In "Hints on the Study of English" by Messrs. Rowe and Webb and in certain other grammars, these are called **Conjunctive Adverbs.** Such a name appears to me unsuitable and likely to create a confusion of ideas in the student's mind. These words, when they join sentence, are not "adverbs" at all, but **Conjunctions pure and simple.** They cannot be classed as "adverbs" in any sense, except when they are used for asking questions.

Purpose.

Principal.		*Dependent.*
We never understood,	*why*	(=the reason for which) he acted so.

Place.

Principal.		*Dependent.*
We find flowers,	*where*	(=in a place in which) we expected only weeds.
We find flowers,	*whenever*,	(=in any places in which) we wander.
He did not tell us,	*whence*	(=the place from which) he had come.

Respect.

Principal.		*Dependent.*
He did not tell us,	*where*	(=the place to which) he was going.
We cannot perceive,	*where*	(=in what respect) the difference lies.

Manner or Means.

Principal.		*Dependent.*
Let me ask you,	*how*	(=by what means or in what manner) you did this.

State or Condition.

Principal.		*Dependent.*
Let me ask you,	*how*	(=in what state of health) you are to-day.

Doubt.

Principal		*Dependent.*
He wished to know,	*whether*	(or if) he was ready to start.

Note 1.—The conjunction "where," when a Preposition is appended to it, becomes a Relative Pronoun.. Thus *wherein* =in which place; *whereof*=of which thing; *whereat*=at which thing; *whereabouts*=about or near which place; *whereto*=to which place; *whereon*=on which thing; *whereout*=out of which thing; *wherefore*=for which reason.

Note 2.—A Relative Conjunction can often be substituted for a Relative Pronoun, as in the following examples:—

{ Ten o'clock is the hour *when* we must start.
{ Ten o'clock is the hour *in which* we must start.

{ Tell me the reason *why* you left us.
{ Tell me the reason *for which* you left us.

{ This is the home *where* we once lived.
{ This is the house *in which* we once lived.

Practice in Subordinative Conjunctions.

Insert Subordinative Conjunctions in the places indicated by—

1. The wind beat against the house,—a part of the roof was blown off.
2. The bulls, —they stood together, were a match for the lion; but — they separated from each other, they fell an easy prey.
3. Tell me candidly—you like my composition, and—you think it shows signs of future promise.
4. No sooner had he gone to bed,—a telegram was brought in.
5. Elephants are not full-grown, — they are 50 or 60 years of age.
6. It is of no use for me to shoot, —I am sure to miss the mark.
7. What can be gained in a place —every one is poor?
8. This dreadful thought pursues me—I go.
9. He was received with respect—he went and—he began to speak.
10. Remain—thou art, —I return.
11. Be ye wise—serpents, but harmless—doves.
12. The river had risen so high, —we could not cross it even in a boat.
13. Present evils are sometimes less distressing—expected ones.
14. More is meant by that man's words—meets the ear.
15. The more we study the human mind, the less able are we to understand— it came into existence or—it had its source.
16. I am quite as much ashamed —you are.
17. I cannot fear any evil, —thou art near.
18. I will keep it by me night and day, —any harm should come to it
19. We are glad that he has succeeded so well, —he has thoroughly deserved it
20. His success is the more creditable, —he had no help from any one, —many offered to help him.
21. At length the moon arose, —it was almost hidden by clouds.
22. They shut up all the shops, —the travellers might not be able to buy any thing or take any thing by force.
23. Some men eat—they may live; others live—they may eat.
24. I am ready to start, —you desire it.
25. The terrified women would have fled more quickly—they did,— they had not been burdened with baggage.
26. We can be happy, —we are poor, —we are contented.
27. I shall die of this desease, —I first die of hunger.
28. You have lied so often, —no one will trust you,—you speak the truth.
29. I will not rise from my seat, —I am bidden.
30. He was forced to get up, —he liked—not.
31. On first coming here, —I was quite honest, every one so distrusted me, —for a long time I found it difficult to live.
32. He gave the boy a prize, not—he had actually earned one, but— he might be induced to work harder next term.

33. Agriculture is the foundation of all wealth, —food is raised by this means; and no one, —clever he may be, can live without food.
34. Past errors may be regretted, but past moments, —they have once fled, are fled for ever and cannot be recalled.
35. The savages, —they saw the ship approaching their island, believed—it was some great animal moving on the water, —they had never seen a ship before.
36. The peasant grows pale, —he sees a cloud of locusts approach
37. I do not doubt—you will succeed in time, —only you will persevere and trust—your labours will be at last rewarded.
38 She turned away in disgust, —she was unable to bear the sight any longer.
39. I will pay you down all that you ask, —you sign a receipt on a stamped paper.
40. They were willing to commence work, and begged—they might be ordered to do so, —they were still weak from the recent attack of fever
41. The robber fled, —he heard the shouts; but he escaped,—any one had time to see his face
42. Seed must be sown, —it will germinate; and flowers must bloom for some time, —they can turn into seed
43 He walked on,—he was so tired—he could walk no further: then he sat down and waited, —food was brought to him.
44. Do—you are told; and then no one can blame you, —a mistake has been made

CHAPTER IX.—INTERJECTIONS.

1. An Interjection, properly speaking, is not a **Part of Speech**, since it has no Grammatical connection with any other words in the sentences.

It is merely an *exclamatory sound*, thrown into a sentence to denote some strong feeling or emotion:—

> (*Joy*) Hurra! huzza! bravo! heigh-ho!
> (*Grief*) O! ah! alas! alack!
> (*Ridicule.*) Ha! ha!
> (*Disgust*) Pugh! pshaw! pish! pooh! tush!
> (*Attention*) Lo! hark! hush!

2. There are certain phrases, which are used like Interjections, to express some strong feeling or emotion:—

> *Ah me*, or *Ay me! Woe is me!*
> *For shame* (=alas, on account of shame!)
> *Alack a day*(=ah, lack or loss on the day!)
> *Hail, all hail*, (=be hale or healthy.)
> *Good-bye* (=*God be with ye* !)
> *Well done! Capital! Bless my soul!*
> *Bad luck to it! O dear me* (=O dear or costly for me!) *good gracious! good heavens!*

3. There are certain constructions, which besides being used in an Interjectional sense to express some feeling of the mind, give some explanation as to the source or character of the feeling:—

(*a.*) (*Infinitive Mood.*) Foolish fellow! *to think* that he should have behaved so badly! *To suppose* that he could act thus with impunity! (See Chapter V, § 6, para. 8.)

(*b.*) (*Adverbial exclamation.*) *How* very kind of you to have remembered me after so many years of absence! (Here the Interrogative Adverb is changed into an Exclamatory one.)

(*c.*) (*Pronominal exclamation.*) *What* a sad thing it is, that he was cut off so suddenly in the prime of life! (Here again an Interrogative Pronoun is changed into an Exclamatory one)

> Ah what a life were his! how sweet! how lovely!
> —*Shakespeare.*

(*d.*) (*Subjunctive Mood.*) *If* I *could* only gain that prize! *Would* that I could gain that prize!

4. Sometimes in a rapid or exclamatory sentence an Auxiliary Verb with its Subject is left out, and only the main verb is expressed :—

Why dream and wait for him longer ?

—*Longfellow.*

(=Why *dost thou* or why *do we* wait for him longer ?)

Note.—The elliptical use of the Infinitive Mood in para. 3 of the Subjunctive Mood in para. 3, and of the main verb in para. 4, is quite in keeping with the rapid and fragmentary mode of expression peculiar to a sudden exclamation, and with the definition of an Interjection given in para. 1

CHAPTER X.

THE SAME WORD USED FOR DIFFERENT PARTS OF SPEECH.

BEFORE leaving the Parts of Speech and going on to the subject of Syntax, &c., it will be as well to recapitulate the different instances in which the same word can be used sometimes as one Part of Speech and sometimes as another.

The examples here given chiefly relate to Prepositions, Conjunctions, Adverbs, and Adjectives. Beside these there are a great many examples of the same word being a Noun or a Verb according to the context. Such examples are so numerous, and at the same time so obvious, that it was not thought necessary to mention them in this summary.

About. *Prep.* He walked *about* the house.
Adv. He is walking *about.*

Above. *Prep.* The sky is *above* the earth.
Adv. The book named *above* was lost.

Across. *Prep.* The house stands *across* that field.
Adverb. He swam *across.*

Around. *Prep.* They walked *around* the field.
Adv. Many persons were standing *around.*

All. *Adj. of Quantity.* He ate *all* the bread.
Indef. Num. Adj. We must *all* die some day.
Adj. used as Noun. We lost our *all* on that day.
Adv. *All* bloodless lay the untrodden snow.

Along. *Prep.* We walked *along* the bank of the river.
Adv. The ship is going *along* at a great pace.

Any. *Adj. of Quantity.* Have you *any* bread?
Adj. of Number. Are there *any* persons present?
Adv. We must stop and rest before going *any* further

As. *Conj of Extent or Manner.* Men will reap *as* they sow.
Conj. of Cause. *As* the rain has fallen, we shall soon see the grass spring up afresh.
Relat. Pronoun. He is not *such* a fool *as* he looks.
Relat. Pronoun. *As many* men *as* came were caught.

Adv. I condemn you *as* a judge, but *as* a man I pity you.

Part of Prep. I will enquire again *as to* that matter.

N. B.—In the phrase "*as regards*," the "*it*" has been dropped, "as regards that matter" = as *it* regards, &c.

After. *Prep.* He came *after* a few days.

Adv. He came a few days *after* or *afterwards*.

Conj. We will go *after* you have dined.

N. B.—When *after* is used to qualify a noun, it is an adverb *compounded with the noun*, and must be joined to the noun by a hyphen; as, "He will be remembered in *after-ages*." Here "after-ages" is a compound noun.

Below. *Prep.* He stood *below* me in the class.

Adv. There is a world *below* and a world above.

Before. *Prep.* A begger is standing *before* the gate.

Adv. I never saw such a thing *before*.

Conj. He took the book, *before* he had paid for it.

Besides. *Prep.* He gave them money *besides* advice.

Adv. There were four men *besides* (in addition.)

Behind. *Prep.* The man stood *behind* the door.

Adv. You should walk *behind*, and not in front.

Between. *Prep.* There is a hare *between* the two bushes.

Adv. The air touches the earth, and there is nothing *between*.

Beneath. *Prep.* He was buried *beneath* the sod.

Adv. There is the sky above, and the earth *beneath*.

Beyond. *Prep.* They shot *beyond* the mark.

Adv. There is nothing *beyond*.

By. *Prep.* *By* whom was this done?

Adv. The horse was going *by*.

N. B.—When *by* is used to qualify a noun, it is an adverb compounded with the noun, and must be joined to the noun by a hyphen. "Let us enter this *by*-path or side-path." Here "by-path" is a compound noun.

Better. *Comp. Adj.* My book is a *better* one than yours.

Comp. Adv. You are working *better* to-day.

Adj. used as Noun. Do not despise your *betters*.

Both. *Def. Num. Adj.* *Both* the men have arrived.

Conj. Co-ord. He is *both* a fool *and* a knave.

But. *Neg. Relative.* There was no one *but* pitied (*who* did *not* pity) the lame horse.
Adv. There is *but* (only) one man present.
Prep. Who could have done this *but* (except) him?
I cannot *but* trust in your word.
I cannot believe *but* that you are lost.
(I cannot believe anything except that, &c.)
Conj. Co-ord. He is a man of common sense, *but* not learned in books.
Conj. Subord. Perdition catch my soul, *but* I love thee.—(*Shakespeare*) (May perdition catch my soul, *if* I do *not* love thee.)

Down. *Prep.* The monkey ran *down* the tree.
Adv. Let us sit *down* here.

Either. *Distrib. Adj.* He is ruined in *either* case.
Conj. Co-ord. He is *either* a fool or a knave.

Else. *Adv.* We could not catch any one *else* (besides this one.)
Conj. Co-ord. He has some real sorrow; *else* he would not weep as he does.

Enough. *Adj. of Quantity.* He has eaten *enough* bread.
Adj. of Number. We have *enough* loaves.
Adj. used as a Noun. He had *enough* to do.

Even. *Adj.* The ground here is quite *even* (level.)
Conj. *Even* a king must obey the laws.
(*Not only ordinary men, but* kings *also* must obey the laws.)

Except *Prep.* All *except* one agreed to this.
Conj. Subord. Ye shall all perish, *except* ye repent.
Verb. No one can *be excepted* from this rule.

First. *Adj.* The *first* man who spoke was yourself.
Adv. He was quite young when I *first* saw him.

For. *Prep.* He has been ill *for* a long time past.
Conj. Co-ord. His death was much lamented: *for* he was a good man.

Half. *Adj. of Quantity.* *Half* measures do not succeed.
Adj. used as Noun. One *half* of his task is now done.
Adv. of Quantity. He was *half* dead with fear.

How. *Inter. Adv.* *How* did you do that? *How* is he to-day?

Relat. Conj. I asked him *how* he did that.

In. *Prep.* You will find him *in* the house.

Adv. Come *in* and take a seat.

Least. *Adj. of Quantity.* Put the *least* burden on the weakest ass.

Adv of Quantity. That ass is the *least* strong of all.

Less. *Adj. of Quantity.* Of two evils choose the *less*.

Adv of Quantity. I love Cæsar *less* than my country.

Little. *Adj. of Quality.* A *little* matter may give much trouble.

Adj. of Quantity He has eaten a *little* bread

Adv. of Quantity Let us wait here *a little*.

Adj. used as Noun. Man wants but *little* here below.

Long. *Adj of Quality.* You have told me a *long* story.

Adv of Time. He waited *long*.

Last *Adj.* He was the *last* man to leave the room.

Adv He was very ill, when I *last* saw him.

More *Adj. of Quantity.* He has eaten *more* bread than you.

Adj. used as Noun. *More* has been done than was expected.

Adv of Quantity I like him *more* than (I like) you.

Adj of Number. *More* men came to day than yesterday.

Adv. of Number. I saw him once *more*.

Most. *Adj of Quantity.* *Most* wool comes from Australia.

Adv. of Quantity. I liked him *most*.

Adj of Number. *Most* men work for their living.

Much *Adj. of Quantity.* He has wasted *much* time.

Adv. of Quantity. I am *much* pleased with your conduct.

Adj. used as Noun. You will not get *much* from me

Neither. *Adj Distrib.* I agree with *neither* side.

Conj. Co-ord. *Neither* you *nor* I can do that.

Near. *Adv.* Stand *near*, while I speak to you.

Prep. There is a fine tree *near* our house.

Adj. He is a *near* relative of mine.

Needs. *Verb.* The earth is very dry and *needs* rain.
Adv. He must *needs* know the reason of this.
Noun. Our *needs* or wants are few.

Next. *Adj.* I will wait for you at the *next* house.
Prep. He stood *next* me in the class.
Adv. Who comes *next?*

No. *Adj. of Quantity.* He has eaten *no* bread.
Adj. of Number. *No* men have been here to-day.
Adv. I answered *no* to his question.
Adv. of Quantity. He is *no* less clever than you are.

Notwithstanding. *Prep.* He wasted his time *notwithstanding* all the warnings given to him.
Adv. He has gained his point, *notwithstanding.*

Off *Prep.* He fell *off* his saddle.
Adv. The robber ran *off* and was not caught.

On. *Prep.* I place my hand *on* the table.
Adv. The rains will soon be *on.*

One. *Def. Num. Adj.* There is but *one* rupee left.
Indef. Pers. Pron. *One* is apt to waste *one's* time.
Indef. Demon. Pron. Your horse is white; mine is a black *one.*

Only. *Adj.* The *only* dog I had was stolen.
Adv. I heard of this *only* yesterday.
Conj. Co-ord. Take what you like; *only* keep silence.

Other. *Adj. Demon.* There is *another* and a better world.
Adj. used as Noun. We should pity the sorrows of *others.*

Over. *Prep.* He is now *over* ten years of age.
Adv. The holidays are now *over.*

Out. *Part of Prep.* He paid for that *out of* his own pocket.
Adv. The secret is *out*, and we shall be caught.

Past. *Prep.* It is now *past* 4 o'clock p. m.
Adv. The cloud is driving *past.*

Round. *Adj.* A square thing does not fit into a *round* hole.
Prep. Draw a circle *round* a given centre.
Adv. The flies are flying *round* and *round.*
Verb. Vasco de Gama first *rounded* the Cape of Good Hope.
Noun. Men must go their daily *round* of duty.

Save. *Verb.* You will *save* him, if you try.
Prep. All men *save* one were frightened.

Since. *Prep.* I have not seen him *since* Monday last.
Adv. I took this house four weeks *since*.
Conj. Subord. We must trust you, *since* you are speaking in earnest.

So. *Adv. of Quantity.* Do not walk *so* fast.
Conj. Co-ord. The time is up; *so* we must start.

Some. *Adj. of Quantity.* Will you have *some* bread.
Adj. of Number. *Some* men escaped, but not all.
Adj. used as Adv. He died *some* (about) ten days ago.

Somewhat. *Noun.* I have *somewhat* to say to thee.
Adv. Quantity. I am *somewhat* tired of your jokes.

Such. *Part of Relat.* He is not *such* a man *as* I expected.
Indef. Dem. Adj. He came to me on *such* a day.
Def. Dem. Pron. You are a coward; I am not *such*.

That. *Def. Dem. Adj.* I am no admirer of *that* book.
Def. Dem. Pron. The light of the sun is brighter than *that* of the moon.
Relat. Pron. The book *that* you gave me has been stolen.
Conj. Subord. { *Apposit.* He heard *that* you had come.
Purpose. We must eat *that* we may live.

Then. *Adv. of Time.* He was better *then* than he is now.
Conj. Co-ord. I see, *then*, we ought to start at once.

Than. *Conj. Subord.* I like this book better *than* (I like) that.
Prep. { These workmen, *than* whom I have never seen men more industrious, have left me.
He was fond of any kind of drink other *than* wine.

To. *Prep.* This fruit is exactly *to* my taste.
Adv. Walk *to* and fro. He fainted, but soon came *to*.

This. *Def. Dem. Adj.* Have you seen *this* man before?
Def. Dem. Pron. Tea is better than wine: *this* intoxicates, but *that* cheers without intoxicating.

The. *Def. Article.* *The* ass is a dull animal.
Rel. Pron. *The* more, the merrier.

There. *Introd. Particle.* *There* is no time to be lost.
Adv. Place. We shall arrive *there* soon.

Then. *Conj. Co-ord.* Well, *then*, you know what I mean.
Adv. Time. He was *then* 12 years old.

Till. *Prep.* We cannot go *till* sunset.
Conj. Subord. Wait here, *till* I return.

Too. *Adv of Quantity.* He is *too* fond of play.
Conj. Co-ord. We *too* must expect to die some day.

Under. *Prep.* The dog slept *under* its master's bed.
Adv. Quinine will soon bring the fever *under*.

Up. *Prep.* The monkey ran *up* the tree.
Adv. The mist is rapidly rising *up*.

Well. *Adv. of Quantity.* He has done the work very *well*.
Adv. used as noun. Leave *well* alone.
Conj. Co-ord. He has finished his work in time; *well*, I did not expect it of such a lazy man.

What. *Inter. Pron. What* did you say? *what* house is that?
Compound Rel. Pron. I do not know *what* you are driving at.
Ellipt. Adv. What with illness and losses, the man is almost ruined.

When. *Inter. Adv. When* shall we see you again?
Rel. Conj. Let us know *when* you will return.

Where. *Inter. Adv. Where* are you living now?
Rel. Conj. I know the house *where* you live.

Which. *Inter. Pron. Which* of the books will you have?
Rel. Pron. I took the book *which* I liked best.

While. *Noun.* We must stop here a little *while*.
Conj. Subord. While the cat is away, the mice will play.

Why. *Inter. Adv. Why* did you not obey orders?
Rel. Conj. I wish to know *why* you did that.

Yet. *Conj. Co-ord.* He is poor, *yet* honest.
Adv. of Time. He has not *yet* arrived.

Within. *Prep.* As he was not well, we stayed *within* doors.
Adv. If you go to the house, you will find him *within*.

Without. *Prep.* I cannot do this *without* your help.
Adv. of Place. He stands *without* and is waiting for you.

CHAPTER XI.—SYNTAX.

N. B.—Some of the rules given in this chapter have been incidentally alluded to already in previous chapters. It has been thought better, however, to bring them up again and include them in the same summary with the rest.

§ 1.—General Rules on the Government of Words.

1. A Verb must be of the same Number and Person as its subject or nominative case.

This is called a *concord* or agreement. Some example of this concord must occur in every sentence that can be formed.

(*a*) If the subject is Singular, the verb must be Singular; as, Rain *is* falling.

(*b*.) If the subject is Plural, the verb must be Plural: as, Rain-drops *are* falling.

(*c*) If the subject is in the First Person, the verb must be in the First Person: as, I love. We come.

(*d*.) If the subject is in the Second Person, the verb must be in the Second Person: as, Thou lovest. You come.

(*e*) If the Subject is in the Third Person, the verb must be in the Third Person; as, He loves. The teacher *has* come.

2. Whenever an Infinitive Mood, or a Verbal Noun, or a phrase or sentence stands as Subject to a verb, the verb is in the 3rd Person, Singular.

To err *is* human	..	*Infinitive.*
Sleeping *gives* rest to the body	.	*Verbal Noun.*
How to do this *was* unknown	.	*Phrase.*
That we must all die *is* certain	.	*Sentence.*

Make the verbs agree properly with their subjects in the following examples:—

When you was here last, you was very fond of reading. The pleasures of life vanishes, when we becomes old and infirm. Thou would have seen the horse, if it had come towards

us. School is broken up and the boys is playing at cricket. The Taj Mahal at Agra have stood a great many years. You is not the man that I want. I am still as fond of books as when you was here before The movement of most quadrupeds are very swift. You wilt be rewarded with a prize for your industry. The following plans has been settled. The origin of Hindu manners and customs are unknown. There's no men in the room at this time. To know the animals, minerals, and fruits of a country are necessary to a knowledge of its history. Walking two or three hours daily in the open air give health and strength to the body. That seven hundred men was killed in that battle were sad news to all of us.

3. Two or more Singular Nouns, when they are joined by *and*, require a verb in the Plural.

A man and his wife *have* come here asking for work.
Your horse and mine (=my horse) are both at the door.

To this rule there are two exceptions:—

(*a*.) If the two nouns joined by *and* refer to the same thing or person, the verb is Singular, and not Plural, as,

The great scholar and poet *is* dead.

Here "*scholar*" and "*poet*" *refer to the same* man, and the sentence might have been written :—

The man, who was a great scholar and a great poet, is dead.

Note.—When the article is mentioned only once, as in the sentence "*the* great scholar and poet," it stands for both the nouns. This shows that only one person, (and not two,) is intended, and that hence the verb must be singular.

But *if the article is mentioned twice as in the sentence "the* scholar and *the* poet,"—then two distinct persons are intended, and the verb following must be in the plural number ; as,

The scholar and the poet *are* dead.

(*b*.) If the two nouns joined by *and* are regarded as a single object or notion, the verb is singular ; as,

Truth and honesty *is* the best policy. Curry and rice *was* his favorite food. Slow and steady *wins* the race.

Here "truth and honesty"=the practice of truth and honesty, and hence the verb following is singular. Similarly "curry and rice"=the food consisting of curry and rice or the mixture

of curry and rice. "Slow and steady"=the plan of being slow and steady.

4. Two or more Singular Nouns, when they are joined by "*or*" or "*nor*," require a verb in the Singular.

Either the man or his wife *has* been here.
Neither the man nor his wife *has* been here.

The verb is Singular, because "or" means *one* of two things and "nor" means *neither* of two things. The full sentence would be "either the man has been here, or his wife has been here," but for the sake of shortness the verb is mentioned only once.

N. B.—If one of the Nominatives is in the Plural Number and the other in the Singular, the verb must be in the Plural, and the Plural Noun must stand next to it :—

Either James or his brothers *are* here.
Neither James nor his brothers *are* here.

5. When two Singular nouns are joined together by *as well as* the verb is Singular :—

He *as well as* his brother *has* gained a prize.

The verb is Singular, because it is *expressed* for *one* of the nouns and *understood* after *the other*. The verb does not stand for both nouns simultaneously.

He has gained a prize, as well as his brother (has gained a prize)

6. When two or more Nominatives, not of the same person, are joined by *and*, the verb is in the first person rather than the second, and in the second person rather than the third.

James and I are (=we are) great friends.

But when two or more such Nominatives are joined by *or* or *nor*, the verb agrees in person with the one nearest to it :—

Either James or I *am* at the top of the class.
Either you or James *has* done it.
Neither James nor you *were* present.

Correct the errors in the verbs in the following sentences :—

Neither my son nor I has ever been on board a ship. You and your friend was very regular students. Both James

and I has decided on doing this. Either your brother or you is chosen for this work. He and you has done much harm. Either you or your class-fellow have committed this fault. Has James and you decided on going away? He and I am the lowest boys in the class.

7. A Collective Singular Noun is followed by a Plural Verb, when the individuals of the group are referred to rather than the group itself:—

(1.) The jury, (*i. e.*, the individual jurors, or men of the jury), *were* divided in their opinion, and could not agree as to the verdict.
(2.) The jury (as one body) selected *its* speaker.
(1.) The multitude (individual men and women) *rise* from their seats and shout applause.
(2.) This multitude (as one body) *is* too large to be contained in so small a building.

8. A noun in Apposition with another noun, or with a pronoun, is in the same case with it.

One noun is said to be in Apposition with another when it refers to the same object.

(1) Alexander, the *king* of Macedon, conquered Persia.
(Here "king" is in the Nominative case, because "Alexander," (the subject to the verb "conquered") is in the Nominative case.)
(2) Persia was conquered by Alexander, the *king* of Macedon.
(Here "king" is in the Objective case, because "Alexander" is in the Objective case after the Preposition *by*.)

Note (*a*,)—A noun is sometimes placed in Apposition to a sentence:—

The men who were taken prisoners were sold into slavery,—a proceeding opposed to the custom of every civilized nation.

Note (*b*)—A sentence can be placed in Apposition to a noun expressed or understood. This occurs, when the sentence is introduced by the conjunction *that*. (See Chapter VIII, § 3, para. 3.)

He made a promise, that he would return soon.
He told us (the fact), that rain had fallen.

Here the sentence "that he would soon return" is in apposition with the *expressed* noun "promise"; similarly the sentence "that rain had fallen" is in apposition with the *understood* noun "fact."

***Note* (c)**—A sentence can be in Apposition to the pronoun *it*. (See Chapter IV, § 3 para 4)

> It is certain that we shall all die
>
> (It, namely that we shall all die, is certain)

Similarly a verb in the Infinitive mood can be in Apposition to *it*

> It is sad to see you so sick
>
> (It, namely to see you so sick, is sad)

***Note* (d)**—When one noun is in Apposition with another noun in the Possessive case, the case ending *s* is added to only one of the nouns —

> Herod married his *brother* Philip's wife
>
> (Here 'brother' is in apposition with 'Philip's')
>
> Milton's fame as a *poet* stands very high
>
> (Here 'poet' is in apposition with 'Milton's')

***Note* (e)**—A Distributive adjective or phrase in the Singular number is often put in Apposition with a noun or pronoun in the Plural number

> The prisoners accused *each* other
>
> (Here 'each' is in apposition with 'prisoners,' and both are subjects to the verb 'accused')
>
> They went away *every man* to his own business
>
> (Here 'every man' (Singular) is in apposition with 'they' (Plural))

***Note* (f)**—A Collective noun in the Singular may be in apposition with a Common noun in the Plural —

> The Rohillas, a Pathan *tribe*, came and settled in Upper India
>
> (Here 'tribe' is in apposition with 'Rohillas')

9 A noun or pronoun followed by a participle is in the *Nominative Absolute* provided that it neither governs nor is governed by any other word in the sentence (See Chapter V, § 7 para 5)

> The voyage was rapid, *the wind being favourable*
>
> *Weather permitting*, we shall meet again this evening
>
> We must now give up the point, *success being hopeless*
>
> *He having declared* his wish, they all departed
>
> *The town being captured*, the inhabitants fled
>
> *My ramble ended*, I returned —*Cowper*

In the following sentence, show whether the Participles noted are ***Absolute*** *or not* —

> A lucrative office in the gift of the President *chancing* to fall

vacant, many conceived that this gentleman would have no difficulty in obtaining it, *thinking* that the President could never refuse such a favour to one of his most intimate friends.

Note.—When no noun or pronoun is expressed, the participle is called an "Impersonal Absolute." (See Chapter V, § 7, para. 6.)

Supposing this to be true, what follows?

10. A noun or pronoun, when it denotes a person or thing *addressed*, is said to be in the *Nominative of address* :—

Friends, Romans, countrymen, lend me your ears.
—*Shakspeare.*

Mourn him, thou *sun*, great source of light.
Restore the dead, thou *Sea* !
—*Mrs. Hemans.*

Note.—The Nominative of address is sometimes called the Vocative.

11. To every adjective or participle (=verbal adjective,) there must be some noun or pronoun, expressed or understood, which it is intended to qualify :—

Noun expressed

The best *men* rise to the top.
He is a great *scholar*.
That *man* beloved by all is dead.
A faded *rose* has no *scent*.
His withered *cheek* and *tresses* gray
Seemed to have known a better *day*. —*Scott.*

Noun understood.

Blessed are the merciful (*men*)
The sea gave up the dead (*men*)
He clung to the just (*quality*) = justice.
The last (*Saxon*) of the Saxons.
The whole (*thing*) is greater than its part.
That is a fine horse of yours (=of your *horses*)

Note.—Adjectives can be "used as nouns": but this is only because some noun has been understood. The whole subject is explained in Chapter III, § 6.

12. An adjective or participle (verbal adjective,) standing as the Complement to an Intransitive verb, or to a Factitive verb in the Passive voice, qualifies the subject not directly, but *through the medium of the verb that comes between them.*

Adjective as Complement.

All things were *joyful* on that day.

—*Southey.*

And *scant* and *small* the booty proved.

—*Spencer.*

The butterfly is glancing *bright.*

—*Mrs. Hemans.*

He knew not that the chieftain lay
Unconscious of his son.

—*Mrs. Hemans.*

Participle as Complement.

The thief was caught *stealing* a horse.
He was found *sleeping* soundly.
He sat down *reading* a book.
He sank into the grave *unknown* and *forgotten.*

Note.—The words in Italics are called Subjective Complements, because they relate to the subject, that is *they qualify the subject through the verb.* (See Chapter V, § 1, para. 13, and § 2, para. 5.)

13. A noun, standing as Complement to an Intransitive verb or to a Factitive verb in the Passive voice, is in the same case as the noun or pronoun going before.

(1.) He was considered to be a *scholar.*
(2.) They considered *him* to be a *scholar.*

In (1) "scholar" is in the Nominative case, because the noun or pronoun going before, (namely *he*,) is in the Nominative case.

In (2) "scholar" is in the Objective case, because the noun or pronoun going before, (namely *him*,) is in the Objective case.

Point out the case of each of the nouns noted below:—

He was proclaimed *king.*
That boy seems an industrious *scholar.*
They expected the boy to be an industrious *scholar.*
Cromwell was called *Protector*, but was *king* in fact.
Cromwell wished himself to be crowned *king*,
That building appears to be a *castle.*
A brave man is never seen to be a *coward*,
They ordered him to be appointed *judge.*
They ordered that he should be appointed *judge.*
My brother is considered a good *workman.*
They considered my brother to be a good *workman.*

Note.—It might be said that the noun, which stands as Complement, is indirectly in apposition with the noun going before, *through the medium of the verb that comes between them;* and

therefore by rule 8 it is in the same case with the noun (or pronoun) going before.

14. A noun may be used as an Adjective to qualify another noun. (See Chapter III., § 2, para. 4.)

Each horseman drew his *battle* blade. —*Campbell.*

The *night* cloud had covered. —*Campbell.*

The wealth of Capua's *marble* halls. —*Macaulay.*

It was a *summer* evening. —*Southey.*

The last of all the bards was he,
Who sung of *bolder* chivalry. —*Scott.*

What beckoning ghost along the *moonlight* shade. —*Pope.*

The *night* winds come and go, mother, upon the *meadow* grass. —*Tennyson.*

In general, these streams lose themselves as little threads of water on the *hill* sides. —*Tyndall.*

Fitz Stephen, a *sea* captain, came to the king and said. —*Dickens.*

Note.—When a hyphen is put between the two nouns, the whole can be parsed as a Compound noun. But when there is no hyphen, the first noun can be parsed as "a noun used like an adjective."

15. An adverb qualifying a verb can be changed into an adjective qualifying the subject to the verb. (This occurs only in poetry.)

And *furious* every charger neighed. —*Campbell.*

Dark lowers the tempest overhead. —*Longfellow.*

And *fearless* there the lowly sleep. —*Mrs. Hemans.*

We frolic to and fro.
As *free* and *blithe*, as if on earth.
Were no such thing as woe. —*Keble.*

How *jocund* did they drive their team afield,
How bowed the woods beneath their sturdy stroke. —*Gray.*

They neither toil nor spin, but *careless* grow.
—*Thompson.*

I saw him, with that lily cropped,
Impatient swim to meet.
—*Cowper.*

Slow rises worth, by poverty depressed.
—*Johnson.*

And *slow* and *sure* comes up the golden year.
—*Tennyson*

This substitution of an adjective for an adverb is not a poetic license, (as it has been explained to be in some books,) but is in conformity with strict grammatical principles. The explanation is as follows :—

An adjective and an adverb are both *qualifying* words ; the former qualifies a *noun*, and the latter a *verb*. In lieu of an adverb qualifying *the verb*, an adjective qualifying the *subject to the verb* can be easily substituted.

But observe, an adjective cannot be thus substituted for an adverb, except in connection with some *verb*. For instance, we cannot say "*uncommon* tall" for "uncommonly tall" ; we cannot say "we did a *peculiar* foolish thing" for "we did a *peculiarly* foolish thing." This is not only a vulgarism, but it is bad grammar.

In older English, however, the substitution of an adverb for an adjective for the sake of qualifying another adjective sometimes occurred. Thus in the New Testament we have "Rejoice and be *exceeding* glad." Here the adjective *exceeding* qualifies the adjective *glad*.

16. A noun or pronoun governed by a Transitive verb or by a Preposition is in the Objective case ; as,

A flash of lightning struck *him*.
A flash of lightning struck *the ox*.
You should not laugh at *me* so much.

Note.—You can parse *me* either as the object to the preposition "at," or as the object to the Transitive Verb "laugh-at :" for the Intransitive Verb "laugh" is made Transitive by the preposition "at" being added to it. (See Chapter V, § 1, para. 15.)

They loved each *other* much.

Is in this sentence "each" (a Distributive Adjective) is in

apposition with "they," and is therefore in the Nominative case; "other" is in the Objective case to the verb "loved."

They loved—each loved—the other much.

17. An Intransitive Verb may be followed by a *Cognate* object, that is, an object implied in the verb itself.

(1) He fought a good *fight*.
(2) He ran his own *course*
(3) He breathed his last (breath.)
(4) He fought it (= the fight) out to the end.

Observe that in (1) the Cognate noun is formed directly from the verb, in (2) it is of a meaning nearly similar to the verb, in (3) it is understood after the adjective "last," and in (4) it is represented by the pronoun "it."

All of these have been explained in Chapter V, § 1, paras 16-18.

18. When two objects are governed by the same verb, one is called the *Direct* object relating to some *thing*, the other the *Indirect* object relating to some *person*. (See Chapter V, § 1, para. 9.)

Give me that book He taught them English.

Note 1.—The Indirect object appears to have arisen from the habitual omission of the preposition *to*, or *from*.

Give me (= give *to* me) that book
I asked him (= asked *from* him or *of* him) a question.

It is still convenient sometimes to express the *to* or the *from* for the sake of contrast: —

{ Give me that book
{ Give that book *to* me, and not *to* him.

{ They asked him a question
{ They asked a question *from* him and not *from* you.

Note 2.—Similary the Dative of Interest, which is more remotely indirect than the preceding, appears to have arisen from the omission of *for*. (See Chapter V, § 1, para. 10.)

Prick *me* Bullcalf, till he roar again.

—*Shakespeare.*

Here *me* means "*for* me," "for my amusement," "amuse me by pricking Bullcalf, till he roar again."

19. A verb, which takes two objects in the Active voice, can take one object in the Passive. (See Chapter V, § 2 para. 4.)

(1.) *Indirect Object of the Passive Verb.*

Active Voice.	*Passive Voice.*
They lent *me* ten rupees,	Ten rupees were lent *me* by them.
He taught *them* English.	English was taught *them* by him.
He promised *me* his help,	Help was promised *me* by him.
I gave *the boy* a book,	A book was given *the boy* by me.
They lent me ten *rupees*,	I was lent ten *rupees* by them.

(2.) *Direct Object of the Passive Verb.*

Active Voice.	*Passive Voice.*
He taught them *English*,	They were taught *English* by him.
He promised me his *help*,	I was promised *help* by him.
I gave the boy a *book*,	The boy was given a *book* by me

20. A noun used in the sense of Space, Time, Price, Degree, Manner, or placed after certain Adjectives, or Interjections, is said to be in the Objective Case.

(*a*) Objective of Space :—

That house is *two miles* distant from ours.
Our house is *twenty feet* high, *thirty (feet)* long, and *thirty (feet)* broad.
He will arise, though he should be
Ten thousand fathoms deep. —*Hood.*
Virginius led the maid *a little space* aside. --*Macaulay.*

(*b*) Objective of Time :—

He goes to the hills *every hot season.*
He stays *three months* in the hills.
I shall start *this day week* (=after a week from this day)
He is working *day* and *night.*

(*c.*) Objective of Price :—

This map cost me *ten rupees.*
Wheat is now *sixteen annas* a seer.
This book is worth *a great deal* more than that.
No one cares *a straw* what he thinks.

(*d.*) Objective of Degree :—

Silver is *ten times* harder than tin.
The air is a *trifle* hotter to-day than it was yesterday.
Lahore is about ten *degrees* higher in latitude than Calcutta.

(*e.*) Objective of Manner or attendant circumstance :—

He attended to his work *heart* and *soul.*

> Bind him *hand and foot*, and take him away.
> They looked at each other *face* to face.
> The two oxen were standing *side* by side.
> They *hand* in hand, with wandering steps and slow,
> Through Eden took their solitary way.
>
> —*Milton.*
>
> He dived into the water *head* foremost.
> He attacked the tiger *gun* in hand.
> Act, act in the living present,
> *Heart* within, and *God* o'erhead.
>
> —*Longfellow.*

(*f*.) Objective after certain Adjectives. The Adjectives which thus take an Objective after them are *like* or *unlike*, *near*, *nigh* or *next*.

> No man could bend the bow like *him*.
> Never man spake like *that man*.
>
> —*New Testament.*
>
> He stood next *me* in the class.
> My house is nearer the *grove* than yours.

Note.—The use of the Objective case, after the above adjectives appears to have arisen from the habitual omission of the preposition *to*, which even now is sometimes expressed.

(*g*.) Objective after Interjections, or in Interjectional phrases :—

> Unhappy *me* ! Oh unhappy *man* !
> Oh fortunate, too fortunate *husbandmen*, if only they knew what a blessed lot is theirs !
>
> —*Virgil.*
>
> O the *depth* of the riches both of the wisdom and goodness of God !
>
> —*New Testament.*

21. A pronoun must be of the same gender, number, and person, as the noun it stands for; but in case it is dependent on its own sentence. (See Chapter IV, § 1, para. 3 (*c*.) This is called a *concord* or agreement.

> (1.) John saw a brown and a black snake in the garden, *which* crept away from *him*, as soon as *they* heard *his* step.

Which. Relative pronoun, common gender, third person, plural number, agreeing with its two antecedent nouns "brown snake" and "black snake." Nominative case or subject to the verb "crept."

Him. Personal pronoun, masculine gender, third person,

singular number, agreeing with its noun "John"; objective case after the preposition "from."

They. Personal pronoun, common gender, third person, plural number, agreeing with its two nouns "brown snake" and "black snake." Nominative case or subject to the verb "heard."

His. Personal pronoun, masculine gender, third person, singular number, agreeing with its noun "John." Possessive case taken with the noun "step."

(2) John killed the brown snake at once
The black *one* nearly escaped, but was killed soon after with a stick *that* John had in *his* hand.

One. Demonstrative pronoun, common gender, third person, singular number, agreeing with its noun "snake." Nominative case or subject to the verb "escaped."

That. Relative pronoun, neuter gender, third person, singular number, agreeing with its antecedent noun "stick." Objective case to the transitive verb "had."

His. Personal pronoun; to be parsed as above.

(3) Do *you* dare to deceive *me*,— *me*, *who* am *your* truest friend ?

You Personal pronoun, common gender, second person, singular number, agreeing with the person addressed. Nominative case to the verb "dare."

Me. Personal pronoun, common gender, first person, singular number, agreeing with the person speaking. Objective case to the transitive verb "deceive."

Who. Relative pronoun, common gender, first person, singular number, agreeing with its antecedent noun or pronoun "me." Nominative case or subject to the verb "am."

Your. Personal pronoun, common gender, as above. Possessive case taken with the noun "friend."

(4) He is the judge *who* will hear this case in court, and as *such* he must not hear any thing from you in private.

Who. Relative pronoun, masculine gender, third person, singular number, agreeing with its antecedent noun "judge." Nominative case or subject to the verb "will hear."

Such. Demonstrative pronoun, masculine gender, third person, singular number, agreeing with its noun "judge." Nominative case in apposition with the following pronoun "he."

Insert the proper Pronouns in the places left blank:—

No one on—entrance into life can be certain of success. Every tree bears leaves after—kind. The man who loves —native land will speak and act in—defence. They all did —duty in—respective offices. A child should obey—parents. The girl tried to get at the top of—class. The river burst—banks. A wise man will not waste—time.

Join the sentences noted below by means of relative pronouns:—

The books have been lost; you bought them.
The men have come; you hired them.
There are 6 boys; we read in class with them.
This is a fine house, I live in it.
The man is caught: he fled from jail.
The man is locked up; you caught him
Bring the keys; you will find them on the table.

Correct the mistakes in the following sentences:—

The boy, against *which* I complained, has been punished, I, who *has* always been strong before this time, have now been taken sick You who *was* present saw what happened. Among the crowd *who* had collected, there was one dwarf. The workmen *which* came to us this morning will go away in the evening You who *has* been so unlucky yourself will feel sorry for others The people raised *its* voice against new taxation. Kindness deserves gratitude from those who *receives* it.

22. A Relative pronoun, if it has two Antecedents, and these are not of the same person, agrees in person with the Antecedent *nearest to it.*

You are the man who *is* chosen

Correct the mistakes in the following sentences:—

I am the man who seek to help thee in distress. Thou art the man who fleest away in the time of danger. Art thou the chief, who brokedst the power of the enemy?

23. A Relative or Demonstrative Pronoun, when it relates to some sentence going before, is in the third person, singular number, and generally in the neuter gender.

I studied Greek when I was young, and *that* (=I studied Greek) at Oxford (*Neuter Gender.*)
Make the best of your time at school; *that* (=one who makes the best of his time) is a wise boy. (*Masc, Gender.*)
They told me you gained the first prize; I was glad to hear of *this* (=the fact of your having gained the first prize.)
He slew all the men taken prisoners, *which* (=the slaying of all the prisoners) was a most cruel and treacherous act.

He stood at the top of his class, *which* (=the standing at the top of the class) I consider very creditable.

He refused to believe my statement, at *which* (=his refusal to believe my statement) we were all much surprised.

24. The Simple or Noun-Infinitive may be (*a*) the Subject to a Finite Verb, (*b*) the Object to a Finite Verb, or (*c*) the Complement to a Finite Verb.

(*a*.) To *sleep* (=sleeping or sleep) is necessary to life.

(*b*) We desire *to improve* (=improvement)

(*c*) He appears *to be* clever

Note 1.—Sometimes a noun or pronoun comes between the Finite Verb and its Complement:—

He begs *you* to forgive=he begs your forgiveness

We ordered *him* to be punished=we ordered his punishment

Note 2.—A Noun-Infinitive must be changed into the corresponding Gerund or Verbal Noun, when it is preceded by a preposition.

We decided *to go*=we decided *on going*

Note 3.—But a Noun-Infinitive is still used after the prepositions *but* (or *except*) and *about*, and in older English it was used after the preposition *for*.

What went ye out *for* to see (=for seeing)?

—*New Testament*

I could do nothing *but* (or *except*) weep.

Here the "to" is omitted after the auxiliary verb "could" See Chapter V, § 6, para 3 (*b*).

He was *about* to be drowned

Here "about" means "near." He was near or very near the state of being drowned. So "to be drowned" is the object to the preposition "about."

25. The Noun-Infinitive can be used absolutely by way of exclamation. (See Chapter V, § 6, para. 8. *b*.)

To think that he should have been so dishonest!

26. The Gerundial Infinitive may be placed (*a*) after a *verb* to express the purpose or cause of the action, (*b*) after a *noun* to qualify its meaning, and (*c*) after an *adjective* to complete its meaning. (See Chapter V, § 6, para. 6.)

(*a*.) *After a verb to express the purpose or cause of the action*:—

He came (with what purpose?) to see the sport.

He was grieved (from what cause?) to see his friend so sick

(*b.*) *After a noun to qualify its meaning:—*

(1.) He brought us some water *to drink*.

(2.) He brought us a chair *to sit on*.

Observe firstly that in example (1) the verb is *Transitive*. "He brought us water to drink" means "he brought us water for the purpose of drinking *it*"; hence the pronoun "it" is understood after the verb "drink."

Observe secondly that in example (2) the verb "sit" is *Intransitive*, but that in order to make it Transitive it is *supplemented by the preposition "on."* "A chair to sit on" means "a chair for the purpose of sitting on *it*"; here the "it" is understood, as in the previous example. Whenever the Infinitive verb is Intransitive, it must have a preposition added to it to give it a Transitive force. It would be quite wrong to say "a chair to sit."

(*c.*) *After an adjective to complete its meaning:—*

Be quick *to hear* and slow *to speak*.

"Quick" for what purpose or in what respect? to hear.

"Slow" for what purpose or in what respect? to speak.

We shall be sorry *to see* him defeated.

"Sorry" from what cause? to see him defeated.

27. The Gerundial-Infinitive can be used absolutely by way of parenthesis. (See Chapter V., § 6, para. 8 *a*.)

He is—to speak plainly—a thief.

28. Words joined by a Cumulative Conjunction must (*a*) be of the same or similar Part of Speech, or (*b*) must do the same work and hold the same rank in the sentence.

(*a.*) *Of the same or similar Part of Speech:—*

They *come* and *go* as they like	...	*Verb and Verb.*
You and *I* went away ...	...	*Pronoun and Pronoun.*
James and *John* went away	..	*Noun and Noun.*
James and *I* went away ...	..	*Noun and Pronoun.*
Slowly and *sadly* we laid him down		*Adv. and Adv.*
Few and *evil* have been my days ...		*Adjec. and Adjec.*
Faint, yet *pursuing* they ran on ...		*Adjec. and Part.*

The monkey runs *up* and *down* the tree. *Prep. and Prep.*

(*b.*) *Of the same work or rank in the sentence:—*

(1.) Complement to a verb:—

He made himself *mean* and *of no reputation*.

—*New Testament.*

(Here the Adjective "mean" is joined to the prepositional phrase "of no reputation," because both are Complements to the Factitive Verb "made.")

Let us then be *up* and *doing*. —*Longfellow*.

(Here the adverb "up" is joined to the participle "doing," because both are Complements to the verb "be" On the use of adverbs "as Complements." See Chapter VI, § 7, para. 2.)

(2.) Words qualifying a noun :—

A man *of sorrows* and *acquainted* with grief.

—*Old Testament*.

(Here the prepositional phrase "of sorrows" is joined to the adjective or participle "acquaintod" for the sake of quali fying the noun "man."

(3.) Words qualifying a verb. (By rule 15 "an adverb qualifying a verb may be changed into an adjective qualifying the subject to the verb." Hence it follows that an adverb and an adjective may be joined together by a conjunction, provided they both qualify the same verb. This occurs only in poetry)

When *faint* and *wearily* he drags
Along his noontide way. ... . —*Southey*
Trip it *deft* and *merrily*. ... ... —*Scott*.
But Sir Richard bore in hand
All the sick men from the land
Very *carefully* and *slow*.) ... . —*Tennyson*.

29. A verb in the Subjunctive mood, preceded by a Subordinative Conjunction, expresses doubt or uncertainty. (See Chapter V, § 5, para. 7.) But a verb in the Indicative mood expresses a fact or certainty.

Murder, though it *have* no tongue, will speak.
If he but *speak*, I will shoot him.
Whether he *allow* me or not, I will speak to him.
Provided he *confess* his fault, I shall pardon him.
Until he *consent*, we can do nothing.
He shall have a prize, lest he *be* or *should be* discouraged.
Unless he *agree* to this, I shall leave him.

30. An adverb can qualify an entire sentence. In

this case it stands as the first word in the sentence which it qualifies.

Unfortunately the thief was not caught.
Evidently he is much distressed at the news.
Apparently he acted from some secret motive.

The above sentences can be placed in apposition to "*it*," by changing the adverb into the corresponding adjective :—

It was unfortunate *that* the thief was not caught.
It is evident *that* he is much distressed at the news
It was apparent *that* he acted from some secret motive

§ 2.—SEQUENCE OF TENSES.

1. WHEN two sentences are joined together by some Subordinative Conjunction, or by a Relative Pronoun, one of them is called the **Principal** and the other the **Dependent** sentence :—

Principal.	*Dependent*
I will let you know,	*when* I shall start.

Note.—The Dependent sentence is always that to which the Subordinative Conjunction or the Relative Pronoun is prefixed. Thus " I shall start " is the dependent sentence, because it has " when " prefixed to it

2. There are two main rules about the Sequence of Tenses, and all special rules centre round these two :—

RULE I.—*If there is a* **Past** *tense in the principal sentence, it must be followed by a* **Past** *tense in the dependent sentence* :—

Principal Sentence (*Past Tense*)	*Dependent Sentence* (*Past Tense*)
It *was* settled,	that I *should* do this.
He *did* not know,	that he *would* go to-day.
He *had been* told,	that he *could* not do this.
He *asked me*,	whether I *had seen* his dog
He *was* informed,	that I *had been helping* him
We never *understood*,	how or why he *did* that
I *was* afraid,	that you *were* much fatigued
I *was enquiring*,	what you *had heard*.
He *concealed* from me,	what he *was thinking* of

Note.—In the dependent sentence it will be seen that all the main verbs are in some past tense, and that the auxiliary verbs

shall, *will*, and *can* have been put into the past tenses ***should***, *would*, and *could*

RULE II —*If there is a* **Present** *or* **Future** *tense in the principal sentence, it can be followed by* **any tense whatever** *in the dependent sentence*

Examples of Rule II

I know or I shall know	that he reads a book that he is reading that he has read that he has been reading	The 4 forms of the Present Tense
	that he will read that he will be reading that he will have read that he will have been reading	The 4 forms of the Future Tense
	that he read that he was reading that he had read that he had been reading	The 4 forms of the Past Tense

3 **Exception to Rule I.**— There is one exception to Rule I The **Past** tense in the principal sentence can be followed by a **Present Indefinite** in the dependent sentence, if the verb in the dependent sentence expresses some *universal* or *habitual* fact —

Principal Sentence (*Past Tense*)	*Dependent Sentence* (*Present Tense*)
They *learnt* at school,	that honesty *is* the best policy
The students *were* taught	that the earth *moves* round the sun
His illness *showed* him	that all men *are* mortal
He *was* glad to hear,	that his brother *is* industrious
They *were* sorry to hear	that he *has* a bad temper

4 **Exception to Rule II** —When the Dependent Sentence expresses a *Purpose*, (See Chapter VIII, § 3, para 7) the verb denoting the purpose is formed by the auxiliary verbs "may" (Present Tense) and "might" (Past Tense)

If there is a **Present** or **Future** Tense in the principal sentence, it must be followed by "may" **(Present Tense,)** *and by no other tense than the Present*, in the **dependent sentence**

		Principal Sentence.	*Dependent Sentence.*
Present.	*Indef.*	He comes,	that he *may* see me.
	Contin.	He is coming,	
	Perfect.	He has come,	
	Perf. Cont.	He has been coming,	
Future.	*Indef.*	He will come,	that he *may* see me.
	Contin	He will be coming,	
	Perfect.	He will have come,	
	Perf. Cont	He will have been coming,	

Note.—If the verb in the principal sentence is in the **Past** tense, it is followed by "might" (Past Tense) in the dependent sentence.

This is entirely in accordance with Rule I.

		Principal Sentence.	*Dependent Sentence.*
Past	*Indef.*	He came,	that he *might* see me.
	Contin	He was coming,	
	Perfect.	He had come,	
	Perf Cont.	He had been coming,	

5. *Lest, should.* A special idiom exists regarding the use of these two words.

If the dependent sentence is preceded by the Subordinative Conjunction "lest," the verb in the dependent sentence is formed by the auxiliary "should"; and "should" is the *only verb* that can be used in the dependent sentence, *whatever may be the tense* of the verb in the principal sentence.

Note.—The word "lest"="that not." "That" expresses an end to be *gained.* "Lest" expresses an end to be *avoided.* (See Chapter VIII, § 3, para. 7.)

	Principal Sentence		*Dependent Sentence*
Past.	He went,		lest he *should* see me, or that he *might* not see me.
Present.	He goes,	...	lest he *should* see me, or that he *may* not see me
Future.	He will go,	.	lest he *should* see me, or that he *may* not see me

N. B.—After the Imperative Mood, *lest* can be followed by the Subjunctive Mood without the help of *should.*

Love not sleep, lest it *bring* (=should bring) thee to poverty.
—*Old Testament.*

6. **Conjunctions of Comparison** When the connecting link between two sentences is some Conjunction of Comparison, (See Chapter VIII, § 3, para. 11, 12), Rules I and II have no existence whatever.

Any tense whatever can be used in the dependent sentence, whatever may be the tense of the verb in the principal sentence ; and the writer or speaker must be simply guided by the sense which he desires to express :—

Principal Sentence.		*Dependent Sentence.*
He *likes* you better,	...	than he *liked* me.
He *liked* you better,	...	than he *likes* me.
He *will like* you better,	...	than he *has liked* me,
He *has liked* you better,	...	than he *liked* me.
He *liked* you better,	...	than *he is liking* me.
He *will like* you better, &c....		than he *was liking* me, &c.

Note 1.—If the comparison is expressed by "as well as" instead of "than," the same rule holds good. Any tense may be followed by any tense, according to the sense intended by the speaker.

He *likes* you as well as he *liked* me.
He *will like* you as well as he *has liked* me, &c., &c.

Note 2.—If no verb is expressed after "*than*" or after "*as well as*," the tense of the verb understood in the dependent sentence is invariably the same, as that of the verb expressed in the principal sentence.

He *liked* you better than (*he liked*) me.
He *will like* you as well as (*he will like*) me.

In the following examples say whether the verb in the dependent sentence is right or not ; and if it is not right, correct it.

I was informed that he *had been reading* a book. He did not say when he *will come*. No one knew whether he *intended* to come or not. He concealed from me what his plans *are*. I fear that you *were* displeased with me yesterday. I shall soon find out, why you *were* so displeased. His face was so changed that I *do* not know him again. The teacher gave me a prize that I *may work* hard next year. The teacher has given me a prize that I *may work* hard next year. You will be pleased to hear, that I *have won* a prize. He asked me why I *wish* to go away so soon. No one understood how he *can* do so much work. He had come that he *might* help me to finish the task. You did not tell me when you *intend*

to return home. I was sorry to find that I *have displeased* you. I hope that you *will pardon* me soon. I did not know why you *give* me this order. We shall soon know what progress he *has made*. We heard to-day what progress he *has made*. You never told us that honesty *was* the best policy. They told me that my brother *was* fond of his books. He gave me good advice lest I *may* fall into evil ways. He taught me that good deeds *were* never lost. He lends his book, that I *might* be saved the expense of buying one.

§ 3.—THE INFINITIVE AS OBJECT OR AS COMPLEMENT.

1. THE two main forms of the Infinitive are (*a*) the **Indefinite** "to love," and (*b*) the **Perfect** "to have loved." (See Chapter V, § 7, para. 2.)

When should the one be used, and when the other?

2. **Infinitive as Object.** When the Infinitive mood is used simply as the noun or object to some Transitive verb, the proper form of the Infinitive is the **Indefinite**; and this form should be used *after any and every tense* of the governing verb. In fact the tense of the governing verb has no effect on the tense of the Noun-Infinitive.

	Finite verb in all tenses.	*Infinitive (Indefinite.)*
Present.	I expect I am expecting I have expected I have been expecting	to meet you.
Past.	I expected I was expecting I had expected I had been expecting	to meet you.
Future.	I shall expect I shall be expecting I shall have expected I shall have been expecting	to meet you.

3. But the **Perfect** Infinitive should be used after the **Past** Tenses of verbs expressing *wish, intention, hope,* &c., provided the speaker or writer desires it to be understood that the wish, intention, or hope was *not fulfilled.*

He wished *to have come,*
He intended *to have come,*
He hoped *to have come,*
He expected *to have come,*
} but something prevented him from coming.

Note.—If we substitute the Indefinite for the Perfect, nothing is implied as to whether the desire, &c., was fulfilled or not:—

He wished *to come*, He intended *to come*, He hoped *to come*, He expected *to come*,	but whether he came or not is an open question.

4. Infinitive as Complement. When the Infinitive mood is used as Complement to a verb of Incomplete Predication, the form of the Infinitive does not at all depend upon the tense of the preceding verb.

The form of the Infinitive in this case depends *solely* upon the intention of the speaker or writer.

(*a*.) If he intends it to be understood, that the action denoted by the Infinitive was accomplished at some time previous to the act denoted by the Finite Verb, the *Perfect* form of the Infinitive must be used.

(*b*.) But if he makes no reference to the time of the action denoted by the Infinitive, the *Indefinite* form must be used.

(*a*.)	*Present* He seems, *Past* He seemed, *Future* He will seem,	to have done this already: (that is, at some previous time.)
(*b*.)	*Present* He seems, *Past* He seemed, *Future* He will seem,	to work hard:— (time not specified.)

Note.—The Perfect form of the Infinitive in the sense (*a*.) is frequently used after verbs of *saying* or *reporting*, when the Finite Verb is in the Present Indefinite Tense and in the Passive Voice:—

He *is said* to have done this.
Sixty men *are reported* to have been slain.

§ 4.—DIRECT AND INDIRECT NARRATION.

1. WHEN the verb in one sentence relates what is said by some speaker in another sentence, the verb in the first sentence is called the *reporting verb*, and what is said in the second sentence is called the *reported speech*; as,

Reporting Verb.	*Reported Speech.*
My father said, ...	"It is time to go away."

2. Now, there are two different ways in which the reported speech may be expressed :—

It may either (*a*) repeat *the actual words* used by the speaker; or (*b*) it may give their *substance*.

3. When the reported speech repeats the *actual words*, this is called **Direct Narration**, as in the above example.

Reporting Verb.		*Reported Speech.*
My father said,	... ...	"It is time to go away."

Note 1.—This is the mode generally used in the Vernacular languages of India.

Note 2.—In all cases of Direct Narration the reported speech must be marked off by commas, as in the above example.

4. When the reported speech gives the *substance* of the words used by the speaker, and does not repeat the actual words, this is called **Indirect Narration**; as,

Reporting Verb.		*Reported Speech.*
My father said,	...	that it was time to go away.

5. *The tense of the reporting verb is never changed.* But the tense of the reported speech is liable to certain changes, when it passes from the Direct Narration to the Indirect.

6. There are two main rules regarding the change of tense in the reported speech; and these are similar to the two main rules about the Sequence of Tenses, which were shown above in § 2, para. 2.

Rule I.—*If the reporting verb is a* **Past** *Tense, the verb in the reported speech must be changed to one or other of the four forms of the* **Past** *Tense.*

Rule II.—*If the reporting verb is a* **Present** *or* **Future** *Tense, the verb in the reported speech is* **not changed** *at all.*

Rule II.

7. Rule II is so simple, that we can dispose of it at once. By this rule the reporting verb is assumed to be in some **Present** or **Future** tense; and whenever this occurs, the verb in the reported speech is *not changed at all*

in its passage from the Direct to the Indirect Narration, but remains exactly as it was.

Reporting Verb.		*Reported Speech.*
Present Tense.		*Any Tense.*
Direct, He has told you,	...	"I *am coming*."
Indirect, He has told you,	...	that he *is coming*.
Direct, He says to his friend,	...	"I *have been reading*."
Indirect, He says to his friend,	...	that *he has been* reading.
Future Tense.		*Any Tense.*
Direct, He will say,	...	"Thou *hast spoken* falsely."
Indirect, He will tell thee,	...	that thou *hast spoken* falsely.
Direct, He will say,	...	"The boy *was* lazy."
Indirect, He will tell them,	...	that the boy *was* lazy.

8. Sometimes there is an uncertainty as to whether the pronoun *he* in the reported speech refers to the person speaking or to the person spoken to :—

	Reporting Verb.		*Reported Speech.*
Direct.	Gobind says to Cleon,	...	"I am wrong."
	Gobind says to Cleon,	...	"You are wrong."
Indirect.	Gobind says to Cleon,	...	"that *he* (who ?) is wrong.

How is this uncertainty about the *he* to be removed ? This can only be done by inserting the name of the person intended after *he*, as in the examples given below :—

	Reporting Verb		*Reported Speech.*
Direct.	Gobind says to Cleon,	...	"I am wrong.'
Indirect.	Gobind says to Cleon,	..	that he (Gobind) is wrong.
Direct.	Gobind says to Cleon,	...	"you are wrong."
Indirect.	Gobind says to Cleon,	...	that he (Cleon) is wrong.

Convert the following from the Direct to the Indirect Narration : -

The judge will say to you, "You are innocent of that crime."
All men declare, "He has never been defeated."
He has told them, "I did not commit this fault."
He is still declaring, "You are the man who did it."
He has been saying all day, "I am tired of work."
I shall tell him plainly, "You cannot come here again."
I shall always affirm, "He, and not I, is the guilty man."
He says every day, "This climate will not suit my health, I must go away as soon as I can."
The judge informs the court, "The man is guilty and will be hanged in 4 days' time."
The man has confessed, "I am the guilty man, and deserve the punishment."

Rule I.

9. Rule I is much less simple than Rule II; and here the difficulty begins.

By Rule I, as the student will remember, (see para. 6) the tense of the reporting verb is assumed to be a **Past** Tense; the tense in the reported speech must therefore be changed into a **Past** Tense also.

For the working out of this rule in detail, the following special rules must be observed :—

(*a.*) The Present Tense (in the reported speech) must be changed to its *corresponding* Past form :

(*b.*) The Past Indefinite (in the reported speech) must be changed to the Past Perfect :

(*c.*) The Past Continuous (in the reported speech) must be changed to the Past Perfect Continuous.

10. *Special rule* (*a*).— Change the Present Tense (in the reported speech) into its *corresponding* Past Form.

Thus *shall* is changed into *should*; *will* is changed into *would*; *may* is changed into *might*; *can* is changed into *could*; *come* is changed into *came*; *is coming* is changed into *was coming*; *has come* is changed into *had come*; *has been coming* is changed into *had been coming*

	Reporting Verb.	Reported Speech.		
Direct.	He said,	"the man *shall* come."	...	(*Present.*)
Indirect.	He said	that the man *should* come....		(*Past.*)
Direct.	He said,	"the man *will* come,"	...	(*Present.*)
Indirect.	He said	that the man *would* come.	...	(*Past.*)
Direct.	He said,	"the man *may* come."	...	(*Present.*)
Indirect.	He said	that the man *might* come.	...	(*Past.*)
Direct.	He said,	"the man *can* come."	...	(*Present.*)
Indirect.	He said	that the man *could* come.	...	(*Past.*)
Direct	He said,	"the man *comes.*"	..	(*Pres. Indef.*)
Indirect.	He said	that the man *came.*	...	(*Past Indef.*)
Direct.	He said,	"the man *is coming.*"	...	(*Pres. Contin.*)
Indirect.	He said	that the man *was coming.*	...	(*Past Contin.*)
Direct.	He said,	"the man *has come.*"	...	(*Pres. Perfect.*)
Indirect.	He said,	that the man *had come.*	...	(*Past Perfect.*)
Direct.	He said,	"the man *has been coming.*"		(*Pres Per. Con.*)
Indirect.	He said,	that the man *had been coming,*		(*Past Per. Con.*)

Examples are not always so simple as those given above; yet the change of the Present Tense is invariably into its *corresponding* Past:—

Direct. And Jacob said: "It *is* enough; my son Joseph *is* yet alive; I *will* go and see him before I *die*"

—Old Testament.

Indirect. And Jacob said that it *was* enough; that his son Joseph *was* yet alive, and that he *would* go and see him before he *died.*

Direct. And David's anger was greatly kindled, and he said, "The man who *hath done* this thing *deserveth* to die, and he *shall* restore the lamb fourfold." *—Old Testament.*

Indirect. And David said that the man who *had* done this thing *deserved* to die, and that he *should* restore the lamb fourfold.

11. *Special Rule (b.)*—Change the Past Indefinite (in the reported speech) into the Past Perfect.

Reporting Verb.	*Reported Speech.*	
Direct. He said,	"the man *came* at six." ...	*(Past Indef.)*
Indirect. He said	that the man *had come* at six,	*(Past Perf.)*
Direct. He said,	"the rain *fell* yesterday." ...	*(Past Perf.)*
Indirect. He said	that the rain *had fallen* yesterday	*(Past Indef.*

12. *Special Rule (c.)*—Change the Past Continuous (in the reported speech) into the Past Perfect Continuous.

Reporting Verb.	*Reported Speech.*	
Direct. He said,	"the man *was coming.*" ...	*(Past Cont.)*
Indirect. He said	that the man *had been coming,*	*(Past Perf. Cont.)*
Direct. He said,	"the rain *was falling* yesterday."	*(Past. Cont.)*
Indirect. He said	that the rain *had been falling* yesterday.	*(Past Perf Cont.)*

Examples on Special Rules (a), (b) and (c) of Rule I.

(1.) *Convert the following sentences from Direct to Indirect* :—

We said to him, "the weather is stormy, and the way is long."
He said to us, "the carriage has come and we shall start soon."
The teacher told us, "the prize will be presented to-morrow."
He said, the "rain has been falling since daybreak, and you cannot go."
We said to him, "your fault will be pardoned, if you confess it."
He said to me, "I am glad to tell you that you are pardoned."
He said, "the man was starting, but he has not yet come."
We heard him say, "I will agree to what you propose, if you sign this."
He said to me, "you are mistaken; you will not go to-day."
Husian said to Ali, "I shall leave this place, as soon as I can."

Hassin said to Ali, "you will be tired before you arrive."
Hassin said, "our friend arrived yesterday, but will go to-day."
My son exclaimed, "some one has taken the book I was reading."
He made a promise, "I will come, if I can."
He said, "I have been very ill, but am now better."
Pilate replied to the Jews, "what I have written, I have written."
He said to me, "you are guilty, and I am innocent."
They said, "the boy is hiding in the place where we left him."
They said, "the boy will soon be found; and we will bring him."

(2.) *Convert the following sentences from Indirect to Direct.*

They made them understand that he would soon return.
He told them that he had been robbed of the book which he had bought.
He said that he was very sorry for the fault he had committed.
They all said to him that he deserved to be pardoned.
They affirmed that he was the best worker they had seen.
He admitted that he had not worked so hard as Ram had done.
He heard them say that he did not deserve the prize.
He promised them that he would do it as soon as he could.
They said that he deserved their thanks for all he had done.
All who heard this said that he was speaking the truth.
He said that he had been three years in jail, and yet was innocent.
They told him they would never believe what he said.
He replied that he would prove what he had said to be true.
My brother told me that he had been reading all day.
My father told me that I was wrong and would be fined.
I replied that if my fault was proved I would pay the fine.
I admitted that I had acted foolishly in what I said.

13. There is one exception to Rule I, similar to that described in § 2, para. 2, for the Sequence of Tenses.

If the reported speech relates to some *universal* or *habitual* fact, then the Present Indefinite in the reported speech is *not* changed into the corresponding Past, but remains exactly as it was. (See Chapter V, § 3, para. 14 and 15)

	Reporting verb.		*Reported Speech.*
Direct.	He said,	...	"we *cannot* be quite happy in this life.
Indirect.	He said	...	that we *cannot* be quite happy in this life.
Direct.	He said,	...	"here we *have* no continuing city."
Indirect.	He said	...	that here we *have* no continuing city.
Direct.	He said,	...	"the earth *moves* round the sun.
Indirect.	He said	...	that the earth *moves* round the sun.
Direct.	He said,	...	"God *rules* and *governs* all things.
Indirect.	He said	...	that God *rules* and *governs* all things.
Direct.	He reminded me		"when the cat *is* away, the mice play."
Indirect.	He reminded me,		that when the cat *is* away, the mice play

14. In the reported speech, when the *Present* Tense is changed into the *Past* by Rule I, an adjective, verb, or adverb expressing *nearness* is similarly changed into one expressing *distance*.

Thus as a general rule we change :—

Now	into	*then;*
This or *these*	,,	*that* or *those;*
Hither	,,	*thither;*
Here	,,	*there;*
Hence	,,	*thence;*
Thus	,,	*so;*
Come	,,	*go;*
To-day	,,	*that day;*
To-morrow	,,	*next day;*
Yesterday	,,	*the previous day;*
Last night	,,	*the previous night;*
Ago	,,	*before;*
Now	,,	*then.*

	Reporting Verb.		*Reported Speech.*
Direct.	He said,	...	" I *will* leave you *now*."
Indirect.	He said	...	that he *would* leave them *then*.
Direct.	He said,	...	" I *will come here*."
Indirect.	He said	...	that he *would go there*.
Direct.	He said,	...	" I *have* seen *this* man."
Indirect.	He said	...	that he *had* seen *that* man.
Direct.	He said,	...	" I *saw this* man long *ago*."
Indirect.	He said	...	that he *had seen that* man long *before*.

But if the speaker desires to lay very special stress upon *this* time or *this* place or *this* thing, then no change of adjective or adverb is made in the reported speech.

	Reporting Verb.		*Reported Speech.*
Direct.	Gobind said,	...	" *This* is my coat."
Indirect.	Gobind said	...	that *this* (the coat in his hand) was his coat.
Direct.	Gobind said,	...	" I will return *this* evening."
Indirect.	Gobind said	...	that he would return *this* evening.
Direct.	Gobind said,	...	" I will do it *now* or never.
Indirect.	Gobind said	...	that he would do it *now* or never.
Direct.	Gobind said,	...	" your horse is gone from *here*."
Indirect.	Gobind said	...	that your horse had gone from *here*.

15. **Reported Questions.**—When the reported speech contains a *question*, and not a statement or assertion, the Reporting Verb "say" or "tell" is changed into "ask" or "enquire"; but there is no change in its tense. (See above para. 5.)

16. In its passage from the Direct Narration to the Indirect, the tense of the reported question is subject to precisely the same rules as the tense of the reported speech or statement; and the two main rules given above in para. 6 must be strictly observed:—

	Reporting Verb.		*Reported Question.*
Direct.	He *said* to me,	...	"What *is* the shortest way back?"
Indirect.	He *enquired* of me,		what *was* the shortest way back.
Direct.	He *said* to me,	...	"Where *are* you going?
Indirect.	He *asked* me	...	where I *was* going.
Direct.	He *said* to him,	...	"Why *do* you *stop* here?"
Indirect.	He *asked* him	...	why he *stopped* there.
Direct.	He *said* to us,	...	"*Are* you *going* away to-day?"
Indirect.	He *enquired* of us,		whether we *were going* away to-day.
Direct.	He said to me,	...	"Why *did* you *strike* me?"
Indirect.	He *demanded* of me		why I *had struck* him.

In all of the above examples, the Reporting Verb is in a *Past* Tense; and hence the verb of the reported question has been changed into a *Past* Tense by Rule I.

But in the examples which follow, the Reporting Verb is in a *Present* or *Future* Tense, and hence by Rule II. the verb of the reported question is not changed.

	Reporting Verb.		*Reported Verb.*
Direct.	He *says* to me,	...	"What *is* the shortest way back?"
Indirect.	He *asks* me	...	what *is* the shortest way back
Direct.	He *says* to me,	...	"Why *have* you *done* this?"
Indirect.	He *asks* me	...	why you *have* done this.
Direct.	He *will say*,	...	"*Is* the man *coming* or not?
Indirect.	He *will ask*	...	whether he *is coming* or not.
Direct.	He *will say*,	...	"*Have* you *been reading* to-day or not."
Indirect.	He *will ask*	...	whether you *have been reading* to-day or not.

7. **Reported Imperative** When the reported speech is in the Imperative mood, the Reporting Verb "say" or

"tell" must be changed to some verb signifying a *command*, or *a precept*, or an *entreaty*; and the student must select the verb best suited to the sense or context.

Note.—In Chapter V, § 4, para. 3, it has been already explained that *command*, *precept*, and *entreaty* are the three uses or significations of the Imperative Mood.

18. In its passage from the Direct Narration to the Indirect, the Imperative mood must be replaced by the *Infinitive*.

	Reporting Verb.	*Reported Imperative.*	
Direct.	He *said* to his servants, ...	"*Go* away at once."	*Command.*
Indirect.	He *ordered* his servants ...	*to go* away at once."	
Direct.	He *said* to his friend, ...	"*Work* steadily."	*Precept.*
Indirect.	He *advised* his friend ...	*to work* steadily.	
Direct.	He *said* to the student,...	"Do *not make* any noise."	*Prohibition*
Indirect.	He *forbade* the student...	*to make* any noise.	
Direct.	He *said* to his master, ...	"*Pardon* me this once."	*Entreaty.*
Indirect.	He *begged* his master ...	*to pardon* him this once.	
Direct.	He *said* to his friend, ...	"*Please lend* me your book.	*Request.*
Indirect.	He *asked* his friend ...	to be kind enough to lend his book.	

If some dependent sentence in the Indicative mood happens to be attached to the Imperative mood, then the tense of the Indicative mood is subject to the same changes after a *Past* Tense as those shown above under Rule I, para. 6.

	Reporting Verb.	*Reported Speech.*
Direct.	He *said* to his servant, ...	"*Do*, as I *tell* you"
Indirect.	He *ordered* his servant ...	*to do* as he *told* him.
Direct.	He *said* to his friend, ...	"*Wait* here till I *return*."
Indirect.	He *begged* his friend ...	*to wait* there till *he returned*.

19. **Reported Exclamation.** When the Reported Verb contains an exclamation of some kind, the Reporting Verb "say" or "tell" must be changed to some such verb as

"exclaim," "cry out," "pray," &c., and the student must select the verb best suited to the sense or context.

	Reporting Verb.	*Reported Exclamation.*
Direct.	He *said*,	... "*Hurrah* ! my friend *is* come."
Indirect.	He *exclaimed with delight*	...that his friend *had* come.
Direct.	He *said* to them all,	..." Good bye, my friends !"
Indirect.	He *bade* good-bye	...to all his friends.
Direct.	He said,	..." *May* God pardon *this* sinner !"
Indirect.	He *prayed* that God	...*would* pardon *that* sinner.
Direct.	He *said*,	..." *Alas* ! how foolish I *have been*."
Indirect.	He *confessed with regret*	...that he *had been* very foolish.

I. *In the following examples an assertion, a question, and an imperative are mixed up in the same speech.*

I. **Direct.** And he said, "I *will* arise and go unto my father and say unto him: "Father, I *have sinned* against heaven and before thee, and *am* no more worthy to be called thy son; *make* me as one of thy hired servants." —*New Testament.*

Indirect. And he said that he *would arise* and go to his father and *would confess* that he *had sinned* against heaven and against him, and *was* no more worthy to be called his son: and that he *would entreat* his father *to make* him one of his hired servants.

2. **Direct.** "What *is* this strange outcry"? said Socrates; "I *sent* the women away mainly in order that they might not offend in this way; for I *have heard* that a man should die in peace. *Be* quiet then and *have* patience."

Indirect. Socrates *enquired* of them what this strange outcry *was*. He *reminded* them that he *had sent* the women away mainly in order that they might not offend in this way; for he *had heard* that a man should die in peace. He *begged* them therefore *to be* quiet and *have* patience.

3. **Direct.** The teacher became angry with the student and *said*, "Why *have* you again *disturbed* the class in *this* way? I *have told* you before that when I *am speaking*, you should be silent. *Leave* the room, and *do not return* again *to-day*."

Indirect. The teacher became angry with the student and *enquired* of him why he *had* again *disturbed* the class in *that* way. He *reminded* him that he *had told* him before that he (the student) should be silent, when he (the master) *was speaking*. He *ordered* him therefore *to leave* the room and *forbade* him *to return* again *that* day.

II. *Miscellaneous examples of sentences to be changed from Direct to Indirect Narration.*

1. And Reuben said unto them, "Shed no blood; cast Joseph into this pit that is in the wilderness, but lay no hand upon him."

—*Old Testament.*

2. And Judah said unto his brethren, "What profit is it, if we slay our brother and conceal his blood. Come, let us sell him to the Ishmaelites, and let not our hand be upon him; for he is our brother and our flesh."

—*Old Testament.*

3. Joseph said to James, "I can tell you what strikes me as the most useful machine in the world." James replied, "Can you, Joseph? I should like to hear of it. What is it used for"?

4. "What do you mean"? asked the man, "How can a rope be used for binding flour"? "A rope may be used for any thing," replied the man, "when I do not wish to lend it."

5. Once the rich man said to his poorer brother, "Why do you not enter the service of the king, so that you may relieve yourself from the baseness of labour"?

6. Finding no remedy, he said to himself, "It is better to die than to live in such misery as I am compelled to suffer from a master, who treats me and has always treated me so unkindly."

7. All her maidens watching said, "she must weep, or she will die." —*Tennyson.*

8. And they said one to another, "We are verily guilty concerning our brother, in that we saw the distress of his soul, when he besought us, and we would not hear: therefore is this distress come upon us." —*Old Testament.*

9. The violent man said, "What violence have I done? What anger have I been guilty of?" Then the others laughed and said to him, "Why should we speak? You have given us ocular proof of your violent temper."

10. And Nathan said unto David, "Thou art the man."

11. The robber said to Alexander, "I am thy captive: I must hear what thou art pleased to say, and endure what thou art pleased to inflict. But my soul is unconquered; and if I reply at all to thy reproaches, I will reply to thee like a free man."

12. "You are old, Father William," the young man cried,
The locks that are left you are gray;
You are hale, Father William, a hale old man;
Now tell me the reason, I pray."

13. "I am sorry indeed," replied the king, "that my vessel is already chosen; and I cannot therefore sail with the son of the man who served my father." —*Dickens.*

14. He cried to them in agony, "Row back at any risk! I cannot bear to leave her behind to be drowned." —*Dickens.*

15. He made a promise to the king's surgeon, saying; "Bleed the king to death with this lancet; and I will give you a thousand pieces of gold; and when I ascend the throne, you shall be my chief minister."

16. Starting up from his couch, the king exclaimed : "There is treachery in this. Tell me instantly what it means: a full confession alone will save your life."

17. "Which of these three men," said Jesus, "was neighbour unto him who fell among the robbers ?" And the lawyer said, "He that showed mercy on him." And Jesus replied, "Go and do thou likewise.'

—*New Testament.*

18. So he enquired of the sailors, "Pray, tell me why there is so much mourning on board your ship"? They answered, "We are carrying slaves whom we captured in different countries ; and those who are chained in the ship and will be sold as slaves are weeping." Then he said, "Please, brothers, ask your captain, if he will give me the slaves for ready cash."

19. "Since yesterday," he observed, "the wind has changed, and Damon will soon be here. Make haste therefore," said he to the executioner, "and do your office."

III. *Miscellaneous examples of sentences to be changed from Indirect to Direct Narration.*

1. Pythias, before his execution, requested but one favour from Dionysius, which was that he might be permitted to visit his wife and children, who were at that time a considerable distance from him, promising faithfully to return on the day appointed.

2. This Dionysius refused to grant, unless some person could be found who would consent to suffer death in his stead, if he did not perform his promise.

3. In a short speech Pythias told the surrounding multitude that his dear friend Damon, would soon arrive ; but he hoped, not before his own death had saved a life so dear as Damon's was to his family, his friends, and his country.

4. He sent his compliments to Francis, Clavering, and Monson, and charged them to protect Raja Guru Das, who was about to become the head of the Brahmans of Bengal.

5. The governor of the town then called out with a loud voice, and ordered Androcles to explain to them how a savage and hungry lion should thus in a moment have forgotten its innate disposition, and be converted all of a sudden into a harmless and inoffensive animal.

6. Androcles then explained to them that the very lion, which now stood before them, had been his friend and partner in the woods.

7. Socrates then suggested to Glaucon that the entire abolition of the guards which he (Glaucon) recommended could not remedy the evils which he desired to remove, and he enquired of Glaucon whether he knew by personal examination that the guards did their work as badly as he imagined.

8 When he reached home, his father asked him where his ship was and what had become of his merchandise. The son in reply told him what had happened,—how he had given up his vessel with its cargo, and had taken in exchange the slaves and set them free, and how he had consented to take this girl back with him and make her his wife

9. When they asked Thales what thing in the world was more universal than every thing else, he replied that Hope was the most universal thing, beacuse Hope remained with those who had nothing else.

10. When Solon and Periander were sitting together over their cups, Periander, finding that Solon was more silent than usual, asked him whether he was silent for want of words or because he was a fool Solon told him in reply that no fool could be silent over his cups

11 A man, being reproached by his neighbours for doing kindness to the bad, explained to them that he had shown this regard not to the man, but to mankind

12. Sir Walter Scott, in a letter addressed to his son, gave him two pieces of advice about the buying of horses:—the first was not to buy an aged horse, however showy it might be; for an aged horse must have done work, and would at anyrate be unserviceable in a few years :—the second was, to buy when the horse was in rather poor condition, so that he might be better able to see all its points.

13 When St. Paul visited Athens, some of the Athenians spoke contemptuously of him, and enquired of each other what that babbler meant to say Others remarked that he seemed to be a setter forth of strange gods So they took him to Mar's hill and asked him to explain to them what the new doctrine was of which he spoke : for he had brought (as they said) certain strange things to their ears, and they wished to know what these things meant.

14. An old grey mouse, with a merry twinkle in his eyes, now got up and said that the plan of the last speaker was an excellent one; but he feared it had one drawback the last speaker had not told them who should tie the bell round the cat's neck.

CHAPTER XII.—ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

§ 1.—ANALYSIS OF SIMPLE SENTENCES.

1. A SENTENCE, which has only *one* Finite Verb, is called a **Simple** sentence; as,

Subject.	*Finite Verb.*
Rain	falls.

2. The Finite Verb, (that is, any part of a verb, excepting the Infinitive Mood or a Participle,) is called **the Predicate** or part of the Predicate; as,

Subject.	*Predicate.*
Rain .	.. falls.

3 A sentence is not Simple (that is, *Single,*) if it has more than *one* Finite Verb. If it has *two* or *more* Finite Verbs, it is called by some name other than Simple, (such as, Compound or Complex.)

Thus:—"If I see him to-day, I will invite him to my house." This is not a Simple sentence, because it has *two* Finite Verbs, *viz.*, "see" and "will invite."

Again:—"The rain fell before they reached home, and every one got wet." This is not a Simple sentence because it has *three* Finite Verbs, *viz.*, "fell," "reached," and "got."

4. There are four distinct parts or elements, of which a Simple sentence can be composed; and the analysis of a sentence consists in *decomposing* it (that is, in analyzing or breaking it up) into these several parts:

§ 1.—The Subject.

§ 2.—Adjuncts to the Subject, *if any.*

§ 3.—The Predicate.

§ 4.—Adjuncts to the Predicate, *if any.*

Of these four elements the first and third, (*viz.*, the Subject and the Predicate,) are essential to the sentence, that is, the sentence could not exist without them. But the second and fourth, (*viz.*, the adjuncts to the Subject or Predicate,) are not essential. They are mere additions, which may or may not be present, and could be removed without destroying the sentence.

5. (*a.*) The Subject must be either some *Noun* or something used instead of a Noun.

(*b.*) The additions or Adjuncts to the Subject, (if there are any,) must be either *Adjectives* or words used like adjectives to *qualify the Subject.*

(*c.*) The Predicate must either be *a Finite Verb*, or it must contain one.

(*d.*) The additions or Adjuncts to the Predicate, (if there are any,) must be either *Adverbs* or words which have the force of an adverb *for qualifying the verb* of the Predicate.

So the form of a Simple sentence, (if the sentence is complete in all the parts,) is as shown below :—

I. SUBJECT.	II. ADJUNCTS TO SUBJECT.	III. PREDICATE.	IV. ADJUNCTS TO PREDICATE.
A tiger ...	fierce ...	was shot ...	to-day.
The horse ...	tired ...	will sleep ...	soundly.

This is the form to which every Simple sentence can be at last reduced; but many sentences are much more complicated than those here shown, and hence the analysis cannot always be performed so easily.

THE SUBJECT.

6. The Subject can be expressed in several different forms, all of which, (as you have already learnt,) are either Nouns or words that have the force of a Noun :—

	Subject.	*Predicate.*
(*a.*) *A Noun.*	Rain ...	... is falling.
(*b.*) *A Noun understood.*	The virtuous (men)	... will prosper.
(*c.*) *A Pronoun.*	We ...	... must go.
(*d.*) *A Gerund or Verbal Noun.*	Working ...	... is healthy.
(*e.*) *An Infinitive used as a Noun.*	To work ...	... is healthy.
(*f.*) *A Phrase used as a Noun.*	How to do this	... is doubtful.

7. The Subject is almost always placed *before* the Predicate.

But it stands *after* the Predicate in such a sentence as that given below :—

It is sad *to see this*=To see this is sad.

Here the Noun-Infinitive is used as a Subject in apposition to *it* : "It, namely, to see this, is sad."

ADJUNCTS TO THE SUBJECT.

8. The Subject, as you have already learnt, does not always stand alone. It may have some word or words added to it, and these are called Additions or Adjuncts.

It has been explained already that all such additions *qualify the Subject*, and hence they are either adjectives or words having the force of an adjective.

9. The principal kinds of addition are :—

(*a.*) An Adjective ;

(*b.*) A Participle or Verbal Adjective ;

(*c.*) A Gerundial Infinitive used as an Adjective ;

(*d.*) A Noun or Pronoun in the Possessive case

(*e.*) A Noun used as an Adjective;
(*f.*) A Noun in Apposition.
(*g.*) A Preposition with its Object.

Examples.

(*a.*) An Adjective; as,

A *heavy* shower fell to-day.

Here *heavy* is something added to the meaning of the Subject "shower," because it shows what kind of shower is meant.

(*b.*) A Participle or Verbal Adjective; as,

A *fertilizing* shower fell to-day.

Here *fertilizing*, which is the Present Participle of the verb "to fertilize," is something added to the meaning of the Subject "shower," because it shows what kind of work the shower is expected to do.

A shower *fertilizing the ground* fell to-day.

Here *ground* is the Object to the verb "fertilizing," and this added to the verb or participle makes a further addition to the meaning of the Subject "shower."

(*c.*) A Gerundial Infinitive used as an Adjective; as,

Water *to drink* is scarce in this place.
A chair *to sit on* was brought by the servant.

Here *to drink* shows the purpose for which the water will be used, and is like an Adjective qualifying the Noun "water." In the same way "*to sit on*" is like an Adjective qualifying the Noun "chair." (See Chapter V., § 6, para. 6.)

(*d.*) A Noun or Pronoun in the Possessive case; as,

My son's teacher called here to-day.

Here *my son's* is something added to the meaning of the subject "teacher," because it shows what teacher is meant. It has the same force as an adjective would have in qualifying the noun "teacher."

(*e.*) A Noun used as an Adjective; as,

The *village* watchman fell asleep in the night.

Here *village* is a noun used like an adjective to qualify the noun "watchman."

(*f.*) A Noun in Apposition; as,

Alexander, *the King*, conquered Persia.

Here the noun *king*, since it refers to the same thing or person as "Alexander," is said to be in apposition to it. It qualifies or adds something to the meaning of the noun "Alexander," by showing what sort of man Alexander was.

If we say *the King of Macedon*, we add something more to the meaning of "Alexander," than if we say merely "the king."

Again if we say *Alexander the Great, the King of Macedon*, we make a still further addition to the meaning of Alexander, for we have now added a second noun "the Great=the great man," in apposition to the noun "Alexander."

(*g*.) A Preposition with its Object; as,

Walking *in the fields* is good for the health.

Here *in the fields* adds something to the meaning of the subject "walking," since it shows in what place the walking is meant to be done.

A man *of virtue* will not tell a lie.

Here of *virtue* adds something to the meaning of the subject "man," since it shows what kind of man is meant. The phrase "man of virtue" means the same as "virtuous man," and hence a preposition with its object, when it is added to a noun, qualifies the noun in the same way as an adjective would do.

THE PREDICATE.

10. The Predicate, as you have learnt already, must always contain some Finite Verb. But a *complete* Predicate is not always expressed by the verb alone; some other word or words are often joined to the verb in order to express its meaning in full.

11. *Intransitive Verbs* of *complete predication.*

Now, there are some Intransitive Verbs which express a full meaning by themselves, and therefore require no word of any kind to be placed after them. These are called verbs "of complete predication."

The boys *laugh*. Birds *sing*. A river *flows*. A shower *falls*. All animals *sleep*. Hogs *grunt*.

12. *Intransitive Verbs of Incomplete Predication.*

To this class belongs all those verbs which say what a thing *is*, *seems*, or *becomes*. Such verbs require some word or words to be placed after them in order to make the predicate complete.

Whatever is placed after them for this purpose is called the **Complement.**

The Complement may take the form of a noun, an adjective, a participle, or a prepositional phrase, or a verb in the Infinitive mood, or an adverb. (See Chapter V, § 1, para. 13.)

SUBJECT.	PREDICATE.	
	Verb.	Complement with Adjuncts.
The horse	is	a four-legged *animal* (*Noun.*)
The moon	is shining	*bright* ... (*Adjective.*)
That old man	seems	very *tired* ... (*Participle.*)
His coat	was	*of many colors* ... (*Prep. Phrase.*)
The fruit	appears	*to be* ripe ... (*Infinitive.*)
The time	is	*up* ... ... (*Adverb.*)

13. *Factitive Verbs in the Passive Voice.*

These, too, are verbs of incomplete predication, and therefore they require a Complement. The Complement can take exactly the same forms as those used with Intransitive Verbs, of incomplete predication.

SUBJECT.	PREDICATE.	
	Verb.	Complement with Adjuncts.
The prince	was crowned	*king* of England ... ... (*Noun.*)
That book	is considered	*useless* .. ... (*Adjective.*)
The thief	was caught	*stealing* a watch ... (*Participle.*)
The school	was found	*in bad order* ... (*Prep. Phrase.*)
The thief	was ordered	*to be punished* ... (*Infinitive.*)
The boat	was set	*afloat* ... ... (*Adverb.*)

14. *Auxiliary Verbs followed by an Infinitive.*

These, too, are verbs of incomplete predication, since they make no sense until an Infinitive has been placed after them. To such verbs therefore the Infinitive is the Complement. (See Chap. V, § 6, para. 3.)

SUBJECT.	PREDICATE.	
	Verb.	Complement with Adjuncts.
These men	can	*go* away.
You	should not	*behave* badly.
The boys	may	*have* a holiday.

15. *Transitive Verbs which take one Object.*

Every Transitive Verb must have one Object at least, either expressed or understood; for a Transitive Verb makes no sense until its object is known or implied. The Object therefore is part of the Predicate.

The Object may take the form of a Noun (or noun understood,) a Pronoun, a Verbal Noun or Gerund, an Infinitive used as a noun, or a phrase used as a noun.

SUBJECT.	PREDICATE.	
	Verb.	Object with Adjuncts.
This man	killed	a fierce *tiger* ... ... (*Noun.*)
We	love	the virtuous (*men*)... ... (*Noun.*)
May horse	carried	*him* ... ... (*Pronoun.*)
Most men	like	*walking* ... ...(*Verbal noun.*)
They	hope	*to succeed* ... ... (*Infinitive.*)
He	enquired	*how to do this* ... ... (*Phrase.*)

16. *Transitive Verbs which take two Objects.*

There are some Transitive Verbs which take two objects, one of which relates to a *thing*, and is called the *Direct* Object, while the other relates to a *person*, and is called the *Indirect*. (See Chapter V, § 1, para. 9.)

SUBJECT.	PREDICATE.		
	Verb.	*Obj. Indirect with Adjuncts.*	*Object Direct with Adjuncts.*
This tutor ...	teaches ...	my son ...	grammar.
The teacher...	will give...	the boy ...	a prize.
The father ...	left ...	his sons ...	all his wealth.
I ...	forgave ...	him ...	his faults.
My servant ...	owed ...	me ...	twelve rupees.
He	paid ...	his servants	their monthly wages.

17.—*Factitive Verbs in the Active Voice.*

A Factitive Verb in the Active Voice not only takes an Object, like an ordinary Transitive Verb, but requires some Complement to be placed after the Object, in order to complete the sense. (See Chapter V, § 1, para. 11.)

The Complement may be a noun, or an adjective, or a participle, or a prepositional phrase, or a verb in the Infinitive mood, or an adverb:—

SUBJECT.	PREDICATE.		
	Verb.	*Object.*	*Complement.*
The people ...	made ...	him ...	*king* ... (*Noun.*)
That grief ...	will drive	his father ...	*mad* ... (*Adjective.*)
They ...	caught ...	the thief ...	*stealing* a watch (*Part.*)
The teacher ...	put ...	the school ...	*into good order* (*Prep. Phrase.*)
The judge ...	ordered ...	the jailor ...	*to lock up* the thief. (*Infin.*)
They ...	found ...	the man ...	*asleep.* ... (*Adverb.*)

18. Thus every possible kind of Predicate can be shown in the following form, whatever the nature of the verb may be :—

	Subject.	Predicate.			
		Verb.	*Object with adjuncts.*		*Complement with adjuncts.*
			Indirect.	*Direct.*	
1	The boy	laughs	...	...	...
2	The horse	is	...	...	a four-legged animal
3	The prince	was crowned	...	...	King of England.
	The thief	was ordered	...	...	to be punished.
4	These men	can	...	...	depart at once.
5	This man	killed	...	a tiger	...
6	The tutor	teaches	my son	Grammar	...
7	The teacher	has put	...	the school	into good order.

The verb in example (1) is an Intransitive Verb of Complete Predication. (See para. 11.)

The verb in example (2) is an Intransitive Verb of Incomplete Predication, which therefore requires a Complement. (See para. 12.)

The verbs in example (3) are Factitive Verbs in the Passive Voice, which therefore require a Complement. (See para. 13.)

The verb in example (4) is an Auxiliary Verb, which therefore requires for its Complement a verb in the Infinitive Mood with the *to* left out. (See para. 14.)

The verb in example (5) is a Transitive Verb, which takes *one* Object. The object is called Direct, when only one object is required or expressed. (See para. 15.)

The verb in example (6) is a Transitive Verb, which takes *two* objects, one Direct, and the other Indirect. (See para. 16.)

The verb in example (7) is a Factitive Verb in the **Active** Voice. It therefore requires a Direct Object,) and a **Complement**, (See para. 17.)

19. In any sentence the Object or Complement **may** have a word or words added to it in order to qualify or increase its meaning.

Thus if the Object or Complement is a Noun, Pronoun, or Verbal Noun, it may be qualified by an Adjective or by some word or phrase having the force of an adjective, as in the phrase "a *four-legged* animal."

Again, if the Object or Complement is a verb in the Infinitive Mood, it may be qualified by an Adverb or by some word or phrase having the force of an adverb, as the sentence "These men can *depart at once*."

In the analysis of sentences all such qualifying words or phrases should be mentioned with the Object or Complement to which they belong. There is no need to carry analysis any further than is shown in the examples given in para. 18.

ADJUNCTS TO THE PREDICATE.

20. Anything *which qualifies the action of the verb*, (by saying something about the time, manner, place, cause, means, instrument, purpose or any other circumstance,) **is** called an Adjunct or addition to the Predicate.

All such additions, *since they qualify the verb*, **must be** either *adverbs* or words having the force of an **adverb.**

21. The principal kinds of adjuncts are :—

(a.) An Adverb.	"He sleeps *soundly*."
(b.) A Participle.	"He sat down *reading* a book."
(c.) A Gerundial Infinitive.	"He came *to see* the horse."
(d.) A Preposition with its Object.	"He fell *into the well*."
(e.) A Noun { of Time.	"He walked *all day*."
{ of Length.	"He walked *ten miles*."
(f.) An Absolute Phrase.	"*The sun having set*, we went away."

In the last example the Noun "sun" is in the Nominative case used absolutely with the participle "having set." (See Chapter V, § 7, para. 5.)

This absolute phrase adds something to the meaning of the predicate, by mentioning the time or reason of the action. "We went away." Why? because the sun was set. "We went away." When? When the sun had set.

Examples for Analysis.

1. The heavens spangled with stars declare the glory of God in silence.

2. The statutes of the Lord are right, rejoicing the heart.

3. A darwesh, travelling through Tartary, having arrived at the town of Balkh, entered the king's place by mistake, thinking it to be a public inn or serai.

4. The darwesh, being tired with walking, spread out his wallet, in order to repose himself after the manner of Eastern nations.

5. My father taught all his sons Euclid with much success.

6. Alexander, the King of Macedon, was surnamed the Great after his conquest of the Persian Empire.

7. The man employed for this purpose caught the thief stealing a watch.

8. My friend, seeing his distress, lent him sixty rupees to help him to the end of his journey.

9. The merchant, having much property to sell, caused all his goods to be conveyed on camels, there being no railway in that particular part of the country.

10. A gentleman of wealth and position, living in London, some sixty years ago, had a country seat in Kent, some forty miles distant from the metropolis.

11. A man convinced against his will is of the same opinion still.

12. The judge fined the watchman a month's wages for criminal breach of trust.

I. SUBJECT.	II. Adjuncts to the Subject.	III. PREDICATE.				IV. Adjuncts to the Predicate.
		Verb.	OBJECT.		Complement.	
			Indirect.	Direct.		
1. The heavens	spangled with stars	declare	...	the glory of God	...	in silence.
2. The statutes	of the Lord	are	...	...	(a) right (b) rejoicing the heart.	...
3. A Darwesh	(a) travelling through Tartary (b) having arrived at the town of Balkh	entered	...	the king's palace	...	(a) by mistake (b) thinking it to be a public inn or serai.
4. The Darwesh	being tired with walking	spread out	...	his wallet	...	in order to repose himself after the manner of Eastern nations.
5. Father	my	taught	all his sons	Euclid	...	with much success.
6. Alexander	the King of Macedon	was surnamed	...	...	the Great	after his conquest of the Persian Empire.

I. SUBJECT.	II. Adjuncts to the Subject.	III. PREDICATE.				IV. Adjuncts to the Predicate.
		Verb.	OBJECT.		Complement.	
			Indirect.	Direct.		
7. The man	employed for the purpose	caught	...	the thief	stealing a watch	...
8. My friend	seeing his distress	lent	him	sixty rupees	...	to help him to the end of his journey.
9. The merchant	having much property to sell	caused	...	all his goods	to be conveyed on camels	there being no railway in that particular part of the country.
10. A gentleman	(a) of wealth and position (b) living in London (c) some sixty years ago	had	...	a country seat	...	(a) in Kent (b) some forty miles distant from the metropolis.
11. A man	convinced against his will.	is	...	...	of the same opinion	still.
12. The judge	being a just man	fined	the watchman	a month's wages	...	for criminal breach of trust.

Analyze the following Simple sentences according to the model.

1 A certain fowler, having fixed his net, withdrew to a little distance for the sake of allowing the birds to come.

2 The king of the pigeons was by chance passing through the sky at this time with a troop of followers.

3 He and they caught sight of the rice-grains scattered by the fowler near the wet.

4 The king of the pigeons then asked his rice-loving followers this question.

5 Why are rice-grains lying here in this lonely place?

6 We will see into this thing.

7 We must be cautious in our movements.

8 One conceitad pigeon among the rest gave them bad advice.

9 He told them to fly down to the rice-grains for the sake of satis fying their hunger.

10 Having flown down and listened to this bad advice, they began to peck up and swallow the grains against the advice of their king.

11 On their beginning to peck they were all caught in the net.

12 Then they blamed their rash and imprudent friend for having given them such bad advice.

13 They ought rather to have blamed themselves for having listened to him.

14 The king now told them what to do.

15 At one moment and with one united movement springing suddenly up fly off with the net.

16 Small things become strong by being united among themselves.

17 Even mad elephants can be held fast by a rope made of thin blades of grass.

18 The pigeons acted on this advice.

19 Making a sudden spring together, they flew up into the air, carrying the net with them.

20 At first the fowler hoped to see them come down again to the earth.

21 But they passed out of sight with the net about them.

22 In this way the fowler lost both his net and the pigeons.

23 The pigeons then said to their king:—"O king, what is the next thing to be done?"

24 The king directed them to a certain place.

25 There his friend, the king of the mice, received them kindly.

26 The king of the mice set them all free by nibbling through the net.

27 Thus the whole troop of pigeons escaped by means of union.

28 All men should profit by this lesson.

29 A chariot will not go on a single wheel.

30 A creeper, having nothing to support it, must fall to the earth and die.

§ 2.—ANALYSIS OF COMPOUND SENTENCES.

N. B.—The student will understand this and the following sections much more thoroughly, if he has made himself master of Chap. VIII, Conjunctions.

1. WHEN two or more Simple sentences, (which are usually called *Clauses*,) are linked together so as to form one larger sentence, the larger sentence so formed is either *Compound* or *Complex*.

2. Between the several clauses, of which a Compound or Complex sentence is made up, there must be some "connective" word by which the clauses are joined together.

Now, there are two, and only two kinds of words, which can be used as connectives; *viz.*, Conjunctions, and Relative Pronouns.

But Conjunctions, (as was shown above in Chap. VIII., § 1, para. 3,) fall into 2 main sub-divisions and 1 minor one—Co-ordinative, Subordinative, and Relative.

So the entire scheme of connectives stands as follows:—

A.—Conjunctions.	Co-ordinative.	I.
	Subordinative.	II.
	Relative.	III.
B.—Relative Pronouns.	... ...	IV.

3. A **Compound** *sentence is one made up of two or more* **Co-ordinate** *(that is, equal or independent) clauses.*

4. The Co-ordinate clauses, of which a Compound sentence is made up, are joined together by the *Co-ordinative Conjunctions*:—

(1.) The sun rose with power, *and* the fog dispersed.	*Cumulative.*
(2.) Either he must leave the house, *or* I (must leave the house.)	*Alternative.*
(3.) He called at my house, *but* I did not see him.	*Contrast.*
(4.) He came back tired; *for* he had walked all day.	*Inference.*

5. The conjunctions of the Cumulative class are :—*and, both—and, also, too*; *as well as*; *not only—but also*; *moreover, besides, further, furthermore, likewise*; *now*; *well*.

The conjunctions of the Alternative class are :—*either, or*; *neither, nor*; *otherwise, else*.

The chief conjunctions of Contrast are :—*but, yet, but yet, nevertheless, however, whereas, while, only*; *indeed—but*; *on the one hand—on the other hand*; *here—there*; *on this side —on that side*; *now—then*; *at one time—at another time*.

The chief Conjunctions of Inference are :—*Therefore, then, so then, so, for*; *consequently, hence*.

Note.—These have all been described in detail with examples in Chapter VIII, § 2, paras. 1-26.

6. **Contracted Sentences.**—Compound Sentences often appear in a contracted or shortened form, so as to avoid the needless repetition of the same word :—

(*a.*) When there are *two Predicates to the same Subject*, there is no need to mention the Subject more than once:—

> (1.) The sun *rose* with power and (the sun) *filled* the sky with light.
>
> (2.) He *called* at my house, but (he) *left* soon after.

(*b.*) When there are *two Subjects to the same Predicate*, there is no need to mention the Predicate more than once :—

> (1.) *He* as well as *you* is guilty, (=He is guilty, as well as you are guilty.)
>
> (2.) Either *this man* sinned or his *parents* (sinned).
>
> (3.) He is poor, but (he is) honest.

Note.—As regards case (*a*), there can be no doubt whatever that a sentence of that kind is capable of being broken up into two Co-ordinate clauses. For whenever you find two or more Finite Verbs, such as "rose" and "filled" in example (1) or "called" and "left" in example (2), each Finite Verb *must be* a Predicate, and every Predicate *must* have its own Subject, whether this Subject is mentioned twice or only once.

As regards case (*b*) no doubt can exist as to the sentence being made up of separate parts or clauses, so long as the two Subjects are joined by any Conjunction except *and*.

But when the two Subjects are joined by *and*, the case is not so clear.

In some instances, such as the following, the two Subjects united by "*and*," are inseparable: in this case the sentence cannot be broken up into parts, but must be considered an indivisible simple sentence:—

> He and I are great friends.
> A carriage and pair costs a great deal.
> The great scholar and poet is dead.
> Youth and experience seldom exist together.

Here we cannot split up any of the above Sentences into two separate clauses. Thus we cannot say, "He is a great friend, and I am a great friend": nor can we say, "youth seldom exists together, and experience seldom exists together." This makes nonsense, and therefore the Sentence must remain indivisible.

On the other hand there are instances, in which the two Subjects, even when they are united by *and*, can be separated, so that each of them can become the Subject of a distinct clause:

> Youth and white paper take any stamp.

Here two sentences can be made:—"youth takes any stamp", "white paper takes any stamp." The separation is legitimate; but it is not always necessary, and in the Analysis of sentences it is not always convenient. Nor is it well in keeping with the rule of Syntax by which two Singular Nouns, when they are joined by *and*, are regarded as *one compound subject* to the Plural Verb. (See Rule 2, in Chap. XI, Syntax, § 1.)

7. **Omission of Conjunctions.**—Alternative conjunctions, and conjunction of Contrast or Inference, are never omitted: but Cumulative conjunctions can be left out, when the aim of the writer is to give a string of sentences, one after another, all bearing upon one central fact which he wishes to enforce. Only the last sentence or the last verb should have "*and*" prefixed to it in such a case.

(1.) The state of Ceylon, immediately before the rainy monsoon bursts upon it, has been thus described by a string of sentences :—

> The deciduous trees shed their foliage, the plants cease to put forth fresh leaves, the grass withers on the baked and cloven earth, the red dust settles on the branches and thirsty brushwood, the insects disappear under the ground or hide beneath the decaying bark, the snails retire into the crevices of the rocks, and all vegetable life languishes under the unwholesome heat.

(2.) The uses and power of steam have been thus described, one single word standing as Subject to no less than 26 Finite verbs or predicates :—

> What will not the steam-engine do? It propels, elevates, lowers, pumps, drains, pulls, drives, blasts, digs, cuts, saws, planes, bores, blows, forges, hammers, files, polishes, rivets, cards, spins, winds, weaves, coins, prints, and does more things than I can think of or enumerate.

8. Co-ordinate or equal clauses can be expressed by **while**, **where**, or **which**, provided we can substitute "*and*" for "*while*," "*and here*" or "*and there*" for "*where*," "*and this*" or "*and that*" for "*which*." In such sentences the second clause is not subordinate to or dependant on the previous one.

(1.) Some men sit down, *while* (=and) others stand.
(2.) He slew all the prisoners, *which* (=and this) was a very barbarous act.
(3.) He is clever at planting young trees; for *which* purpose (=and for this purpose) every one is glad to employ him.
(4.) He went to London, *where* (=and there) he stayed ten days.
(5.) Immense saw mills have been erected near Rangoon and Moulmain, *which* towns (=these towns) are situated at the mouths of the two great rivers of Burma.

In each of these examples the clauses joined together by the Relative conjunctions are simply *added* together, and there is no inequality of rank between them. Hence the sentence so formed is Compound, and not Complex.

Rules and Model.

9. The process of analyzing Compound sentences can be described under the following rules:—

(*a.*) Pick out the Finite Verb of each clause;

(*b.*) If any Finite Verb is understood, but not expressed, supply it.

(*c.*) Pick out the Subject to each Finite Verb in succession.

(*d.*) If the Subject to any Finite Verb is understood, but not expressed, supply it.

(*e.*) Then write out each clause with its Subject, Predicate, and Adjuncts (if there are any Adjuncts) in full;

(*f.*) Pick out the Connective word, by which any one clause is joined to any other clause.

(1.) His greatest enemy, as well as his best friends, declared him to be innocent of the fault laid to his charge.

A. His greatest enemy declared him to be innocent of the fault, &c.

B. His best friends declared him to be innocent of the fault, &c.

Connective :—As well as.

2. Either you or your son must sign his name.

A. You must sign your name,

B. Your son must sign his name

Connectives :—either—or,

3. He, not I, is certainly the author of that plan.

A. He is certainly the author of that plan.

B. I am not the author of that plan.

Connective :—(*nil.*) Here no connective is required.

	THE CLAUSES.	Connective.	I. Subject.	II. Adjuncts to Subject.	III. PREDICATE.				IV. Adjuncts to Predicate.
					Finite Verb.	Object with Adjuncts. Indirect.	Object with Adjuncts. Direct.	Complement with Adjuncts.	
Example (1.)	A.—His greatest enemy repeatedly declared him to be innocent of the fault, &c.	...	enemy	his greatest	declared	*nil*	him	to be innocent of the fault laid to his charge	repeatedly.
	B.—His best friends declared him to be innocent of the fault, &c.	as well as	friends	his best	declared	*nil*	him	to be innocent of the fault, &c.	repeatedly.
Example (2.)	A.—You must sign your name at once on that paper	either	you	*nil*	must	*nil*	*nil*	sign your name	(*a.*) at once (*b.*) on that paper.
	B.—Your son must sign his name at once on that paper	or	your son	*nil*	must	*nil*	*nil*	sign his name	(*a.*) at once (*b.*) on that paper.
Example (3.)	A.—He is certainly the author of that plan	...	He	*nil*	is	*nil*	*nil*	the author of that plan	certainly.
	B.—I am not the author of that plan	*nil*	I	*nil*	am not	*nil*	*nil*	the author of that plan	*nil*.

Miscellaneous examples of Compound Sentences to be analyzed. Each clause, after being separately stated out in full, should be analyzed according to the model given in the previous page.

1. He as well as you is tired of all this work. (2 *clauses.*)

2. Either he or his friend must have opened the door: for no other person had the key. (3 *clauses.*)

3. The Lord knoweth the way of the righteous, but the way of the ungodly shall perish. (2 *clauses.*)

4. He either does not or will not understand the orders given to him. (2 *clauses.*)

5. How to do this or how to do that was never explained to us, and so we did neither. (2 *clauses.*)

6. He acts like a child; for now he laughs, and then he cries; he goes first here, and then there; and no one knows what he will do or not do next. (6 *clauses.*)

7. They found the horse indeed; but it distressed them to see it; for it was lame. (3 *clauses.*)

8. The Spaniel frisked and gambolled about the lion, barked at him, would now scrape and tear at his head with his claws, then seize him by the ear and bite and pull; but nothing could aggravate the noble beast. (9 *clauses.*)

—*The Lion and the Spaniel.*

9. With cane extended far, I sought
To steer it close to land;
But still the prize, though nearly caught,
Escaped my eager hand. (2 *clauses.*)

—*The Dog and the Water Lily.*

10. At length I to the boy called out;
He stopped his horses at the word,
But neither cry, nor voice, nor shout,
Nor aught else like it could be heard. (6 *clauses.*)

—*Alice Fell.*

11. Sir Ralph the Rover tore his hair,
And beat his breast in his despair;
The waves rush in on every side,
And the ship sinks down beneath the tide. (4 *clauses.*)

—*The Inchcape Rock.*

12. The musquito is our declared enemy, and a very troublesome one it is; however, it is well to make its acquaintance; for by doing so we shall be forced to admire it, and even to admire the instrument used by it for wounding us.

—History of a Musquito.

13. The life of the musquito is brief, but very active; the female lives for two or three weeks, lays its eggs and dies.

—History of a Musquito..

14. In wet weather the water rises and floats the eggs, producing an abundant harvest; whereas in dry seasons many eggs fail to reach the water, and so dry up and perish.

—History of a Musquito.

15. The tailors sit *at* a table, not *on* one; and both they and the shoe-makers work well and cheaply.

—City of Singapore.

16. The barbers have to shave heads and clean ears; for which latter operation they have a great array of tweezers, picks and brushes. *—City of Singapore.*

17. Others carry a portable cooking-apparatus and serve up a meal of fish, rice, and vegetables for two or three halfpence; while coolies and boatmen waiting to be hired are seen on every side, *—City of Singapore.*

18. In this way the spider lived in a precarious state for more than a week, and nature seemed to have fitted it for such a life; otherwise it could not have subsisted upon a single fly for so long a time. *—Sagacity of the Spider.*

19. Then he was led to enquire into the condition of more distant jails; for which purpose he visited every large jail in England and many of those in Scotland and Ireland.

—Howard the Philanthropist.

20. At Venice he went with the greatest cheerfulness into the sick-house, where he remained as usual for forty days, and thus exposed his life for the sake of his fellow-creatures.

—Howard the Philanthropist.

21. The diver, on descending into the water, seizes the rope with the toes of his right foot, while he takes hold of the bag with those of his left; nor does he expect to remain under water for less than two minutes.

—Pearl Fisheries of Ceylon.

22. The Brahmans or astrologers promise success to the divers; for they expect a liberal gift of pearls as a reward for the happy sense of confidence imparted by them to those men.

—*Pearl Fisheries of Ceylon.*

§ 3.—ANALYSIS OF COMPLEX SENTENCES.

1. **A Complex** *sentence consists of a Principal clause with one or more Dependent clauses attached to it.*

A Dependent clause is one which cannot stand alone, but depends upon a Principal clause for the completion of its meaning. (See Chapter VIII, § 3, para. 1.)

2. Dependent clauses have been distinguished into :—

(*a.*) The Noun-Clause ;

(*b.*) The Adjective-Clause ;

(*c.*) The Adverb-Clause.

3. The following definitions should be clearly understood and remembered :—

(*a.*) *A Noun-Clause is one which does the work of a Noun in relation to the rest of the sentence.*

(*b.*) *An Adjective-Clause is one which does the work of an Adjective in relation to the rest of the sentence.*

(*c.*) *An Adverb-Clause is one which does the work of an Adverb in relation to the rest of the sentence.*

(*a.*) *The Noun-Clause.*

4. There are three kinds of connectives by which a Noun-Clause can be introduced :—

(1.) The Conjunction *that* in the sense of Apposition. (See Chapter VIII, § 3, para. 3) :—

We did not know *that he would leave us so soon.*

(2.) A Relative Conjunction whose antecedent is not expressed :—

Where he is going is not known to any one.

(3.) A Relative Pronoun, whose antecedent is not expressed :—

We did not enquire *who came here to-day.*

5. The Noun-Clause, since it does the work of a Noun, can be :—

(1.) The Subject to the Finite Verb of the sentence.

(2.) The Object to some Verb in the sentence.

(3.) The Object to some Preposition in the sentence.

(4.) The Complement to the Finite Verb of the sentence.

(5.) In Apposition to some Noun in the sentence.

6. **Noun-Clause as Subject.** This can be seen from the following examples :—

> *Where he is going* is not known to any one.
> *That he will come back soon* is certain (=*It* is certain *that he will come back soon.*)
> *Who steals my purse* steals trash. —*Shakspeare.*

7. **Noun-Clause as Object to some Verb.** This can be seen from the following examples :—

> He promised *that he would soon pay back the debt.*
> I shall be glad to know *when he will pay it.*
> I hope to find out *who made that noise.*
> Perceiving *what a mistake he had made*, he yielded.
> There is no hope of getting *what we asked for.*

8. **Noun-Clause as Object to some Preposition.** This can be seen from the following examples :—

> My success in future depends upon *who is placed over me.*
> My success depended on *whether he was honest or not.*
> Except *that he speaks too fast* he is an excellent teacher.

9. **Noun-Clause as Complement.** This can be seen from the following examples :—

> This is exactly *what I expected.*
> My question was *whether there was any hope of his recovery.*
> This is *what no one can understand.*

10. **Noun-Clause in Apposition.** In point of fact some noun is always understood or expressed before the Conjunction "*that*": (this has been explained already in Chapter VIII., § 3, para. 3). When the noun is *expressed*, the clause

introduced by the Conjunction *that* is in apposition to that noun.

> The news *that he intended to come* gave us much pleasure.
> The reason *why he was so sad* is unknown to me.

Here the clause "that he intended to come" is in apposition to the Noun "news." This is the reasonwhy the Conjunction *that* is said to signify apposition. (See above, Chapter, VIII., § 3, para. 3.)

11. The Conjunction "*that*" (in the sense of apposition) is often left out after a *verb*; but it is better to make a habit of expressing it.

> I think (that) *I shall never know this.*
> It seems (that) *he is not clever.*

N. B.—The Conjunction *that* is never left out after a noun :—

> The *news he intended to come* gave us much pleasure.

This is quite inadmissible. Since the Noun "news" is expressed, the appositional clause "he intended to come" must be introduced by the Conjunction "*that*."

12. In such a sentence as the following, the noun marked in Italics is said to be in apposition to the sentence going before :—

> They began to insinuate publicly that Socrates did not acknowledge the gods whom the state acknowledged,—*an entirely false charge.*

Here the noun "charge" is in apposition, not to any particular word, but to the whole of the preceding sentence.

But the phrase "an entirely false charge" might be expanded into an entire sentence possessing both a Subject and a Finite Verb. The phrase so expanded must be called a Noun-Clause, because it does the work of a noun, being in apposition to the sentence going before :—

> They began to insinuate publicly th at Socrates did not acknowledge the gods whom the state acknowledged, (*which was an entirely false charge*), and that he corrupted the youth with his unsound notions of morality.

13. A clause expressed in the form of the Direct Narration, (See Chapter XI, § 4, para. 3,) may be the Subject or

Object to a verb, and must therefore be considered as an example of a Noun-Clause :—

He said, "I have seen this man before."
The multitude cried out, "Great is Diana of the Ephesians."
The sleeper started up from his bed, shouting "I am bitten."

Examples of the Noun-Clause.

Pick out the Noun-Clause and say whether it is the Subject, to the main verb, or the Object to some Verb, or the Object to some Preposition, or the Complement to the main Verb, or in Apposition to some noun expressed. Supply the Conjunction "*that*," wherever it has been left out.

1. No one knows when he will come, or whether he will come at all or whether he is even alive.
2. How this came to pass is not known to any one.
3. What is sauce for the goose is sauce for the gander.
4. It is quite evident rain will fall to-day.
5. The Equator shows where days and nights are of equal length.
6. What is one man's meat is another man's poison.
7. You must know that the air is never quite at rest.
8. I think I shall never clearly understand this.
9. We heard the school would open in ten days' time.
10. The name "Volcano" indicates the belief of the anicent Greeks, that the burning hills of the Mediterranean were the workshops of the divine blacksmith, Vulcan.
11. Even a feather shows which way the wind is blowing.
12. Whatever faculty man has is improved by use.
13. The fool hath said in his heart "there is no God."
14. "Know thyself" was the advice given us by a Greek sage.
15. He did not know that his father had been shot.
16. The fact that you have not signed your name to a letter shows that you lack moral courage.
17. It will be easily understood how useful even the simplest weapons were to the first dwellers on the earth.
18. The question first occurring to the mind of a savage is how is fire to be made.
19. Common sense soon taught him that fire could be produced by rubbing two sticks together.
20. In chipping their flint weapons men must have seen that fire occasionally flashed out.
21. We learn from travellers that savages can produce fire in a few seconds.
22. He shouted out to the thief "Leave this house."
23. We cannot rely on what he says.

24. It is quite evident you have made a mistake.
25. It was very unfortunate that you were taken ill.
26. He was a man of fine character except that he was rather timid.

(b.) *The Adjective-Clause.*

13. The Adjective-Clause is not itself an adjective, but it does the work of an adjective by qualifying some noun or Pronoun expressed in some other clause. The only kind of Connective word by which an Adjective-Clause can be introduced is a Relative Pronoun, or a Relative Conjunction which can be substituted for a Relative Pronoun.

1. Among the men, *who came here to-day*, not one turned out to be honest.

(Here "who came here to-day" is an Adjective-Clause, because it qualifies the noun "men," as an Adjective would do.)

2. We found the wolf lying dead in the very place *where(=in which) it was shot*.

(Here "where" is quivalent to the Relative "in which," and agrees with its Antecedent "place." The words "where it was shot" are therefore an Adjective-Clause.)

14. The Relative Pronoun, provided it would be in the Objective case, is often left out :—

> The food he needed (=*which* he needed) was not procured without great deal of trouble.

Pick out the Adjective-Clause or Clauses in each of the following examples, and point out the noun or pronoun qualified by it in the Principal sentence. If the Relative Pronoun has been omitted anywhere, supply it :—

1. Man has the power of making instruments, which bring into view stars, whose light has taken a thousand years to reach the earth.
2. The first thing which man needed was some sharp-edged tool.
3. The exact time when the theft was committed was never found out.
4. The man by whom the theft was committed has been caught.
5. The house we lived in has fallen down.
6. This is the same story as I heard ten years ago.
7. It's an ill wind that blows no one any good.
8. He is still reading the book you gave him.
9. He made his living by the presents he received from the men he served.

10. All is not gold that glitters.

11. In ponds, from which but a week before the wind blew clouds of dust, men now catch the reanimated fish.

12. A river is joined at places by tributaries that swell its waters.

13. Of what use is a knowledge of books to him who fails to practice virtue?

14. Fortune selects him for her lord, who reflects before acting.

15. Springs are fed by rain, which has percolated through the rocks or soil.

16. Nuncomar prepared to die with that quiet fortitude with which the Bengalee, so backward, as a rule, in personal conflict, often encounters calamities, for which there is no remedy.

17. I have seen the house where Shakspeare was born.

18. The plan you acted on has answered well.

19. They accepted every plan we proposed.

20. Surely the story you are telling me is not true.

21. Thrice is he armed that hath his quarrel just.

22. The night is long that never finds the day.

23. He travelled home by the way his father showed him.

24. There are times when every one feels a little sad.

25. Before his death he parted from those who were most nearly connected with him.

26. I forgot to tell you the time when I shall return.

(c.) *The Adverb-Clause.*

15. The Adverb-Clause is not itself an Adverb, but it does the work of an Adverb by qualifying some Verb, Adjective, or Adverb in the Principal Clause.

16. The Adverb-Clause can be introduced by any of the *Subordinative* Conjunctions; but an exception must be made of the Conjunction "*that*," when it is used in the sense of Apposition.

N. B.—The Conjunction "*that*" in the sense of Apposition is reserved for the Noun-Clause. (See above, para. 4.)

Principal Clause.	*Adverb Clause.*	*Subord. Conjunc.*
He will succeed,	*because* he works hard...	(*Cause.*)
He worked *so* hard,	*that* he was quite tired,	(*Effect.*)
He took medicine,	*that* he might get well,	(*Purpose.*)
I will do this,	*if* I am allowed ...	(*Condition.*)
He is honest,	*although* he is poor ...	(*Contrast.*)
He likes you *more*,	*than* (he likes) me ...	(*Comparison.*)
Men will reap,	*as* they sow ...	(*Extent or Manner.*)
The sun will rise,	*so long as* the world lasts,	(*Time.*)

15. The chief Sub-ordinative Conjunctions (exclusive of "*that*" in the sense of Apposition) are as follows:—

(*a.*) **Cause** or **Reason**;—*because, since, as, for-as-much as, in-as-much as, seeing that, considering that.*

(*b.*) **Effect**;—*that, so that, with the effect that, till.*

(*c.*) **Purpose**;—*that, in order that, so that, lest.*

(*d.*) **Condition**;—*if, unless, supposing that, provided provided that, as if, whether or no.*

(*e.*) **Contrast**;—*though, although, however much, notwithstanding that, though, yet, whereas, when.*

(*f.*) **Comparison**;—*as—as, as much as, no less than, more than, less than, rather than.*

(*g.*) **Extent** or **Manner**;—*as, so far as, according as.*

(*h.*) **Time**; *as, as soon as, when, while, whilst, before, ere, until, after, since, so long, as, whenever.*

N. B.—These Conjunctions have been described already in full in Chapter VIII, § 3.

16. After the Conjunctions *though, when, if,* and *while* the Auxiliary Verb preceding a Present or Past Participle is often understood. In analyzing a sentence, care must be taken to supply such Auxiliaries, since these are an essential part of the Predicate, and the sentence is not complete without them:—

Though much alarmed at the news, he did not lose all hope.
Though *he was* much alarmed, &c., he did not lose all hope.

He sprained his foot, while walking down the steps in the dark.
He sprained his foot, while *he was* walking down the steps in the dark.

A snake, when creeping silently through the grass, is not always noticed.
A snake, when *it is* creeping silently, &c., is not always noticed.

The number of rings round the stem of a cocoanut tree would, if counted, show the age of the tree.
The number of rings round the stem of a cocoanut tree would, if *they were* counted, give the age of the tree.

17. After the Conjunction *than* the verb is often omitted altogether. Care must therefore be taken to supply it, before the process of analysis is commenced.

> He loves you better than (he loves) me.
> He loves you better than I (love you).

Note 1.—When *than* is used with the Relative Pronoun "who," it is a preposition and not a conjunction :—

> Belial, *than whom* a spirit more lewd.
> Fell not from heaven, —*Milton.*

Note 2.—Similarly when *than* is placed immediately after "other," it is a preposition :—

> No man other *than* yourself shall enter this house.

Pick out the Adverb-Clause or Clauses in each of the sentences given below, and mention the particular kind of qualification denoted by each conjunction. (See paras. 14 and 15.) Analyze each sentence according to the model.

1. He will succeed, because he has worked hard.
2. Men engage in some work, that they may earn a living.
3. He threatened to beat him, unless he confessed.
4. He was always honest, though he was poor.
5. This is not true, so far as I can tell.
6. He likes you as much as I do.
7. He tried much, before we succeeded.
8. Let us go to bed, as it is now late.
9. He walked with care, lest he should stumble.
10. I agree to this, provided you sign your name.
11. Though he punish me, yet I will trust in him.
12. He returned home, after he had finished the work.
13. Prove a friend, before you trust him.
14. When the cat's away, the mice will play.
15. He worked so hard, that he succeeded at last.
16. As he has been well punished already, I will let him off.
17. He sees very well, considering that he is 60 years of age.
18. I gave him a prize, that he might work harder next year.
19. Now when I am poor and unfortunate, my friends so-called have left me.
20. As the tree falls, so will it lie.
21. Ever since we left the house, it has not ceased raining.
22. I would be glad to lend you that money, if I had as much in my own pocket.
23. Murder, though it have no tongue, will yet speak.
24. Unless you leave the house at once, I will send for a policeman.

25. A jackal, while prowling about the suburbs of a town, slipped into an indigo tank; and not being able to get out he laid himself down, so that he might be taken for dead.

26. The owner of the tank, when he beheld what seemed to be a dead jackal, carried the body into the jungle and there flung it down.

27. This one fact, if closely examined, proves the man to be guilty.

28. He is an honest man, though poor; and industrious, though old and rather infirm.

29. Better to reign in hell than serve in heaven. —*Milton.*

30. *If the trunk of a tree, when young and pliable, is not made to* grow straight, it cannot be straightened afterwards, when old and stiff.

30. A rabbit cannot run so well as a hare; but it is more skilful than a hare in digging the ground and boring holes under the earth.

31. The wild grey rabbit is not so large as the tame rabbit kept in a cage.

32. A rabbit is about as large as a cat: but it has a shorter tail than a cat and much longer ears.

33. A certain courtier, while in the very act of speaking to the king about certain affairs of state, was stung by a scorpion; but the man, though badly bitten and suffering much pain, kept his face unmoved, until the king had finished speaking.

Mixed Sentences.

18. A Noun-Clause, an Adjective-Clause, or an Adverb-Clause may itself have some clause or clauses dependent on it.

Again, a sentence may be partly Compound and partly Complex; and a mixed sentence of this kind may be joined to another mixed sentence by some Co-ordinative Conjunction.

In fact, the kinds of mixture which may and do occur in ordinary composition are so various, that it is not worth while to attempt to classify them.

19. However mixed the sentence may be, the same general principles apply to all, and the process of analysis is as follows:—

(*a.*) Pick out the Finite Verb of each clause,

(*b.*) If any Finite Verb is understood, but not expressed, supply it;

(*c*.) Pick out the Subject to each Finite Verb in succession;

(*d*.) If the Subject to any Finite Verb is understood, but not expressed, supply it;

(*e*.) Then write out each clause with its Subject, Predicate, and Adjuncts (if there are any) in full;

(*f*.) Pick out the Connective word, by which any one clause is joined to any other clause;

(*g*.) If a Connective word is understood, but not expressed, supply it;

(*h*.) Show what kind of clause each of the clauses is in succession; that is, show whether it is a Principal Clause, or a Co-ordinate Clause, or a Noun-Clause, or an Adjective-Clause, or an Adverb-Clause.

Examples.

(1.) *The unfortunate man had not long lain quiet in the cavern before he heard a dreadful noise, which seemed to be the roar of some wild beast and terrified him very much.*

A.	The unfortunate man had not long lain quiet in the cavern,	*Principal Clause.*
B.	Before he heard a dreadful noise,	*Adverb Clause.*
C.	Which seemed to be the roar of some wild beast,	*Adject. Clause to B.* (*noise.*)
D.	And which frightened him very much,	*Co-ordinate to C.*

(2.) *The governor of the town, who was present, called out with a loud voice and ordered Androcles to explain how a savage beast could have so forgotten its innate disposition all of a sudden that it became converted into a harmless animal, which preferred rather to spare its victim than to devour him.*

A.	The governor of the town cried out with aloud voice,	*Principal Clause.*
B.	Who was present,	*Adject. Clause* to *A.* (*governor,*)
C.	And (the governor) ordered Androcles to explain,	*Co-ordinate to A.*

D.	How a savage beast could have so forgotten its innate disposition all of a sudden,	*Noun-Clause to C. (explain.)*
E.	That it became converted into a harmless animal,	*Adverb-Clause to D.*
F.	Which preferred rather to spare its victim,	*Adject.-Clause to E. (animal.)*
G.	Than (it preferred) to devour him.	*Adverb-Clause to F.*

(3.) *All the persons present were astonished and delighted with the story, which showed that even the fiercest beasts can be softened by gratitude towards one who has done them a kindness.*

A.	All the persons present were astonished (with the story,)	*Principal Clause.*
B.	And (all the persons were) delighted with the story,	*Co-ordinate with A.*
C.	Which showed,	*Adject.-Clause to B. (story.)*
D.	That even the fiercest beasts can be softened by gratitude towards one,	*Noun-Clause to C. (showed.)*

E. Who has done them a kindness. *Adject.-Clause to D. (one.)*

(4.) *The foolish man was at first amused at seeing how tipsy the monkeys were, and therefore he continued for a little while to watch their hideous grimaces and listen to their foolish jabberings; but as he happened to be sober himself at the time, he soon changed his mind and began to reflect what a degraded and hideous creature he must be himself when under the influence of liquor, if he too behaved as these monkeys were then doing before his eyes.*

A.	The foolish man was at first amused at seeing,	*Principal Clause.*
B.	How tipsy the monkeys were,	*Noun-Clause to A. (seeing.)*
C.	And therefore he continued for a little while to watch their hideous grimaces and listen to their foolish jabberings;	*Co ordin. to A.*
D.	But he soon changed his mind,	*Co-ordin. to A. and C.*

E.	As he happened to be sober himself at the time,	*Adverb-Clause to D.*
F.	And (he) began to reflect,	*Co-ordin. to D.*
G.	What a degraded and hideous creature he must be himself,	*Noun-Clause to F. (reflect.)*
H.	When (he was) under the influence of drink,	*Adverb-Clause to G.*
I.	If he too behaved,	*Adverb Clause to G.*
J.	As these monkeys were then doing before his eyes,	*Adverb-Clause to I.*

Detailed Analysis of Example 1.

THE CLAUSE.	Kind of clause.	Connective.	I. Subject.	II. Adjuncts to Subject.	III. PREDICATE.				IV. Adjuncts to Predicate.
					Finite Verb.	Object with Adjuncts. Indirect.	Object with Adjuncts. Direct.	Complement with Adjuncts.	
A.—The unfortunate man had not long lain quiet in the cavern	Principal clause.	...	the man	unfortunate	had not lain	*nil*	*nil*	quiet	(*a*.) long. (*b*.) in the cavern.
B.—Before he heard a dreadful noise	Adverb clause to A.	before	he	*nil*	heard	*nil*	a dreadful noise	*nil*	*nil*.
C.—Which seemed to be the roar of some wild beast	Adjective clause to B (noise.)	which	which	*nil*	seemed	*nil*	*nil*	to be the roar of some wild beast	*nil*.
D.—And frightened him very much.	Co-ordinate to C.	and	(which)	*nil*	frightened	*nil*	him	*nil*	very much.

Detailed Analysis of Example 2.

THE CLAUSE.	Kind of clause.	Connective.	I. Subject.	II. Adjuncts to Subject.	III. PREDICATE.				IV. Adjuncts to Predicate.
					Finite Verb.	OBJECT WITH ADJUNCTS.		Complement with Adjuncts.	
						Indirect.	Direct.		
A.—The governor of the town cried out with a loud voice	Principal clause.	...	the governor.	of the town.	cried out	*nil*	*nil*	*nil*	with a loud voice.
B.—Who was present,	Adject. clause to A (governor)	who	who	*nil*	was	*nil*	*nil*	present	*nil*.
C.—And ordered Androcles to explain	Co-ordinate to A.	and	(the governor.)	*nil*	ordered	*nil*	Androcles	to explain	*nil*.
D.—How a savage beast could have so forgotten its innate disposition all of a sudden	Noun clause to C (explain.)	how	a beast	savage	could	*nil*	*nil*	have forgotten its innate disposition	(*a.*) so (*b.*) all of a sudden.
E.—That it became converted into a harmless animal	Adverb clause to D.	that	it	*nil*	became	*nil*	*nil*	converted into a harmless animal	*nil*.
F.—Which preferred rather to spare its victim	Adject. clause to E (animal.)	which	which	*nil*	preferred	*nil*	to spare its victim	*nil*	rather.
G.—Than devour him.	Adverb clause to F.	than	(it)	*nil*	(preferred)	*nil*	to devour him.	*nil*	*nil*.

Detailed Analysis of Example 3.

THE CLAUSE.	Kind of clause.	Connective.	I. Subject.	II. Adjuncts to Subject.	III. PREDICATE.				IV. Adjuncts to Predicate.
					Finite Verb.	OBJECT WITH ADJUNCTS.		Complement with Adjuncts.	
						Indirect.	Direct.		
A.—All the persons present were astonished	Principal clause.	...	the persons.	(*a*.) all (*b*.) present	were	*nil*	*nil*	astonished	*nil.*
B.—And delighted with the story	Co-ordinate to A.	and	(the persons.)	*nil*	were	*nil*	*nil*	delighted with the story	*nil.*
C.—Which showed	Adject. clause to B. (story.)	which	which	*nil*	showed	*nil*	clause D	*nil*	*nil.*
D.—That even the fiercest beasts can be softened by gratitude towards one	Noun clause to C. (showed)	that	beasts	even the fiercest	can	*nil*	*nil*	be softened by gratitude towards one	*nil.*
E.—Who has done them a kindness.	Adject. clause to D. (one.)	who	who	*nil*	has done	them	a kindness	*nil*	*nil.*

Detailed Analysis of Example 4.

THE CLAUSE.	Kind of clause.	Connective.	I. Subject.	II. Adjuncts to Subject.	III. PREDICATE.				IV. Adjuncts to Predicate.
					Finite Verb.	OBJECT WITH ADJUNCTS.		Complement with Adjuncts.	
						Indirect.	Direct.		
A.—The foolish man was at first amused at seeing	Principal clause	...	the man	foolish	was	*nil*	*nil*	amused at seeing	at first.
B.—How tipsy the monkeys were	Noun clause to A (seeing.)	how	the monkeys	*nil*	were	*nil*	*nil*	tipsy	*nil.*
C.—And therefore he continued for a little while to watch their hideous grimaces and listen to their foolish jabberings	Co-ordinate to A.	and therefore	he	*nil*	continued	*nil*	*nil*	to watch their grimaces and listen to their jabberings	for a little while.
D.—But he soon changed his mind	Co-ordinate to A and C.	but	he	*nil*	changed	*nil*	his mind	...	oon.

E.—As he happened to be sober himself at the time,	Adverb clause to D.	as	he himself	*nil*	happened	*nil*	*nil*	to be sober	at the time.
F.—And began to reflect	Co-ordinate to D.	and	(he)	*nil*	began	*nil*	to reflect	*nil*	*nil.*
G.—What a degraded and hideous creature he must be himself	Noun clause to F (reflect.)	what	he himself	*nil*	must	*nil*	*nil*	be a hideous and degraded creature	*nil.*
H.—When under the influence of drink,	Adverb clause to G.	when	(he)	*nil*	(was)	*nil*	*nil*	under the influence of drink	*nil.*
I.—If he too behaved	Adverb clause to G.	if	he	too	behaved	*nil*	*nil*	*nil*	*nil.*
J.—As these monkeys were doing before his eyes	Adverb clause to I.	as	monkeys	these	were doing	*nil*	*nil*	*nil*	before his eyes.

Miscellaneous Examples for Analysis.

N. B.—These examples should be read aloud and worked out in class before the teacher. The students should be asked in turn to state each clause in full, supplying any Finite verb or any Subject or any Connective word that may have been omitted.

When each separate clause has been distinctly stated and all its omissions (if there are any) supplied, it is easy to say whether it is a Principal clause, a Noun-clause, an Adjective-clause, or an Adverb-clause, and to pick out the Connective word, the Subject, the Finite verb, &c.

The *detailed* analysis (according to the model given) can be worked out more easily on paper.

1. Blessed is the man that walketh not in the counsel of the wicked, nor standeth in the way of sinners, nor sitteth in the seat of the scornful. (4 *clauses.*)

—*Old Testament.*

2. Nothing can describe the confusion of thought which I felt when I sank into the water. (3 *clauses.*)

—*Robinson Crusoe.*

3. A blind man, carrying a lantern in his hand and a pitcher on his shoulder, was walking along one night, when he was met by a thoughtless young fellow, who laughed at him and said:—O fool! day and night must be alike to you; of what use can his lamp be to you? (6 *clauses.*)

—*Tales from Persian.*

4. If man had had a skin thickly covered with hair or wool, as an ape or sheep has, he could not have moved from one climate to another with comfort; and so he is made naked, but not without the power of improving his condition, wherever he may be. (7 *clauses.*)

—*Clodd.*

5. Even as the driver checks a restive steed, so do thou, if thou art wise, restrain thy passion, which, if it runs wild, will hurry thee away. (5 *clauses.*)

—*Manu.*

6. Sometimes you may trace a river to a definite spring; but you very soon assure yourself that such springs are fed by rain, which has percolated through the rocks or soil, and which through some orifice, that it has found or formed, comes to the light of day. (7 *clauses.*)

—*Tyndall.*

6. If you put the end of an iron rod in the fire and hold it there, you do something more than heat that end; for you heat the whole of it up to the end that you hold in your hand. (6 *clauses.*)

—*Heat and its Causes.*

8. In his seventieth year Louis Carnaro had a fall by which he broke an arm and a leg. (*2 clauses.*)

With some men at that time of life so great a hurt would have been difficult to cure or might even have occasioned death; but with Carnaro, whose body was in the soundest condition, it was cured in a very short time. (*4 clauses.*)

—*Story of Louis Carnaro.*

9. Whoso keepeth the law is a wise son; but he that is a companion of riotous men shameth his father. (*4 clauses.*)

—*Old Testament.*

10. They expected that the king would either treat the matter as a pleasant jest or threaten the insolent darwesh with punishment; but to their surprise he was neither amused nor angry, but seriously attentive to the words of the darwesh. (*6 clauses.*)

—*Advice to a King of Tartary.*

11. Sir Isaac Newton, after deep meditation, discovered that there was a law in nature called attraction, by virtue of which every article of matter that the world is composed of draws toward itself every other particle of matter with a force which is proportionate to its mass and distance. (*5 clauses.*)

—*Why an Apple Falls.*

12. Since the surface of the earth is not flat, but circular, and since the velocity of the earth's rotation increases more and more as we approach the equator, streams of water coming southwards from the pole lose time and cannot acquire the same velocity of rotation as the water of the Torrid Zone. (*7 clauses.*)

—*The Gulf Stream.*

13. It may be considered as a general mark whereby one can know them, that they affect to disdain the practice of every species of theft that is not preceded by murder. (*4 clauses.*)

—*History of Thugs.*

14. Originally we took no care of the bodies of those who fell by our hands, but left them lying wherever they were strangled; until one man, more curious than the rest, ventured to watch the body of a man he had murdered, as he expected by this means to witness the manner in which it would be disposed of by Kali, the guardian goddess of our sect. (*8 clauses.*)

—*History of Thugs.*

15. After his schooling was finished, his father, desiring him to be a merchant like himself, gave him a ship freighted with various sorts of merchandise, so that he might go and trade about the world and grow rich, and become a help to his parents who were now advanced in age. (*4 clauses.*) —*Good Deeds are Never Lost.*

16. My Lord, sometime ago, to do this man a kindness, I lent him ten rupees, which he was to repay me as soon as I demanded it. (*3 clauses.*)

did not ask him for it again for a good while, lest the inconvenience of paying it should be greater than that which he laboured under when he borrowed it. (5 *clauses.*) —*Don Quixote.*

17. If the rich should throw money into your lap, consider not yourself obliged to him; for I have often heard it said that the patience of the poor is more worthy to be admired than the liberality of the rich. (5 *clauses.*) —*The Darwesh who became a King.*

18. These mendicants are fat enough, though they live only on what they get by begging; but I know how I can make them thin, though they eat the same things as before. (7 *clauses.*)

—*The Foolish Mendicants.*

19. There's many a heart not half so free
From care as humble poverty. (2 *clauses.*)

20. Content is a pearl of great price, and whoever procures it at the expense of ten thousand desires makes a good purchase. (3 *clauses.*)

—*Balguy.*

21. Dionysius had the curiosity to visit Pythias in the prison when the hour of the intended execution drew near, that he might learn from him what he now thought of his folly in becoming surety for a man who had already broken his promise. (5 *clauses.*)

—*Damon and Pythias.*

22. I shun a friend who pronounces my actions to be good when they are bad; but I like a simple and sincere friend who holds my faults as he would a looking-glass before my face and compels me to see them. (7 *clauses.*) —*Gházali.*

23. The rocks which first meet the eye of the traveller, as he enters the canal, are a part of the break-water that extends out into the sea for two miles on either side of the canal. (4 *clauses*). —*Suez Canal.*

24. Although no boy appeared, and Shakabak observed neither basin nor water, the Barmecide nevertheless began to rub his hands as if some one held the water for him, and while he was doing this he urged Shakabak to do the same. (6 *clauses.*) —*Barmecide Banquet.*

25. Verily I say unto you, this poor widow hath cast in more than they all: for they cast in of their abundance; but she of her want hath cast in all that she had, even all her living. (6 *clauses.*)

—*New Testament.*

26. The merchants were now in a great rage, and told the darwesh that he must know all about the lost camel, and suspected that he might have received some of the jewels and money which formed part of the camel's load. (6 *clauses.*) —*The Darwesh and the Camel.*

27. As he wanders about in the darkness and attempts to discover the road, he finds that, although he is officially a king, he is in fact no better-off in the present emergency than any ordinary man. (6 *clauses.*)

—*The King and the Miller.*

28. As soon as the oysters are taken out of the boats, they are carried away by the different persons to whom they belong, and placed in holes and pits dug in the ground to the depth of about two feet, or in small square places cleared and fenced round for the purpose, each person having his own separate division. (5 *clauses.*)

—*Pearl Fisheries in Ceylon.*

29. The electricity of the air stimulates the vegetation of the trees, and scarcely a week elapses before the plants are covered with the larvæ of butterflies, the forest is murmuring with the hum of insects, and the air is harmonious with the voices of birds. (5 *clauses.*)

—*Tennent's Ceylon.*

30. Air, when it is heated, expands, or in other words the particles of which it is composed are driven further and further apart from each other; and so the air being less dense, less compact, or less solid, becomes proportionately lighter. (5 *clauses.*) —*The Two Monsoons.*

31. At one of the celebrated schools of painting in Italy a young man, named Guidotto, produced a picture of such merit, that it was the admiration of the masters in the art, all of whom declared it to be their opinion that he could not fail to rise to the top of his profession, if he went on as he had begun. (6 *clauses.*) —*The Three Painters.*

32. An anonymous letter signifies that the writer lacks moral courage to affix his name, and either cannot or dare not face the contents. (4 *clauses.*) —*Anonymous Letters.*

33. As a goddess she had whims and fancies of her own; and one of these was that no woman was permitted to touch the verge of her mountain or pluck the berries of a certain bush which grew upon the sides. (4 *clauses.*) —*The Volcano of the Hawaians.*

34. I cannot make Crito believe that I am the same Socrates who have been talking and conducting the argument; he fancies that I am the other Socrates whom you will soon see,—a dead body; and he ask "how shall he bury me?" (9 *clauses.*) —*Last Hours of Socrates.*

35. The great cage in front was occupied by a beast, who by way of pre-eminence was called the king's lion; and while he traversed the limits of his straitened dominions, he was attended by a small and very beautiful black spaniel, who frisked and gambolled about him and at times would pretend to snarl and bite at him. (7 *clauses.*)

—*The Lion and the Spaniel.*

36. It was the time when Ouse displayed
His lilies newly blown;
Their beauties I intent surveyed,
And one I wished my own. (4 *clauses.*)

—*The Dog and the Water Lily.*

37. Jenner was not only an inventor and a man of genius, but one who conquered the prejudices and ignorance of his contemporaries, refused greatness and riches when they were offered him, and found

his greatest satisfaction in the thought that he had made a discovery which has since saved Europe from the scourge of small-pox. (8 *clauses.*)

—Discovery of Vaccination.

38. As if the wind blew many ways,
I heard the sound, and more and more:
It seemed to follow with the chaise,
And still I heard it as before. (6 *clauses.*)—*Alice Fell.*

39. He only begged that she would not meddle with state affairs during his absence from Macedonia, but allow his kingdom to be managed peaceably by his governor, Antipator, as if he were present. (4 *clauses.*) —*Alexander and his Mother.*

40. A stormy midnight watch, he thought,
Than this sojourn would have been dearer,
If but the storm his vessel brought
To England nearer. (4 *clauses.*)

Napoleon and the Sailor.

41. He that bullies those who are not in a position to resist him may be a snob, but cannot be a gentleman. (4 *clauses.*)

On the Treatment of Inferiors.

42. No good act should be delayed which can be performed to-day; for death does not consider whether the man he approaches has done his duty or not. (6 *clauses.*) —*Lost Opportunities.*

43. In this awful moment he wrote or dictated a letter to Prince Azam, in which his worldly counsels are mixed with broken sentences that give utterance to the feelings of remorse and terror with which his soul was agitated, and which he closes with a sort of desperate resignation:—"Come what may, I have launched my vessel on the waves. Farewell! farewell! farewell!" (12 *clauses.*)

—Death of Aurangzeb.

44. He hath set fast mountains upon the earth lest it should move with you, and made rivers and pathways to guide you, and land-marks; by the stars likewise are men directed. (5 *clauses.*) —*Quran.*

45. Ten or twelve days before the time appointed for a sacrifice the hair of the victim selected, which till then remains unshaved, is cut off, and the villagers, having bathed, go out of the sacred grove with the priest, who then invokes the goddess and proclaims to her that they are preparing for her the repast she loves so well, and implores her favor in return. (8 *clauses.*) —*The Kandhs.*

46. *Agree with thine adversary quickly whilst thou art with him* in the way, lest haply the adversary deliver thee to the judge, and the judge deliver thee to the officer, and thou be cast into prison. (5 *clauses.*)

—Sermon on the Mount.

47. Well, you remember, I told you that the sun is a ball much bigger than the ball or earth we inhabit; upon which you properly asked how it was that the earth did not fall into the sun. (8 *clauses.*)

—*Why the Earth moves round the Sun.*

48. "Had you come," said he, "with hostile intentions, you would have been a fair prize: but since you came only as distressed mariners, humanity commands me, instead of injuring, to succour you." (5 *clauses.*) —*The Governor of Havannah.*

49. Not enjoyment, and not sorrow,
Is our destined end or way,
But to act that each to-morrow
Finds us further than to-day. (5 *clauses.*)

—*Psalm of Life.*

50. When the eggs have been transformed into the state of larvæ, or caterpillar, they change their skin three times in the course of two or three weeks, each change being preceded by a period of repose and succeeded by one of activity and voracity. (2 *clauses.*)

—*History of a Musquito.*

51. Here is a large ball,—we call it a globe, and the person who made it thought it was like the world we live on; and I think also it is very like the world in shape. (8 *clauses.*) —*Shape of the Earth.*

52. I perceived about four months ago a large spider in one corner of my room making its web, and though the maid-servant frequently levelled her broom against the labours of the little animal, I had the good fortune to prevent its destruction, and I may say it more than paid me by the entertainment it afforded. (6 *clauses.*)

—*Sagacity of the Spider.*

53. The rootlets at the ends of these fibres strike into the ground, and when they have become well fixed in the earth, the sap which previously was flowing downwards changes its direction and flows upwards. (5 *clauses.*) —*The Banyan Tree.*

54. Lives of great men all remind us
We can make our lives sublime,
And departing leave behind us
Foot-prints on the sands of time,—
Foot-prints, that perhaps another,
Sailing o'er life's solemn main,
A forlorn and shipwrecked brother,
Seeing may take heart again. (4 *clauses.*)

—*Longfellow.*

55. Five hundred years ago men thought that the earth was flat and held up on pillars, and some said that old Atlas carried it upon his

shoulders: the Hindus, however, felt and still feel quite sure that the earth rests upon the back of a tortoise; but when they are asked what keeps the tortoise up, they cannot tell; this puzzles them. (11 *clauses.*) —*Shape of the Earth.*

56. When sailors are at sea and are coming near home, they first of all see the tips of the high hills in the far distance and cry out "Land ahead! land ahead!"; then they see more of the sides, then lower down still they see the slopes, until, when they have come near the shore, they see the whole of the hills from top to bottom. (10 *clauses.*)

—*Shape of the Earth.*

57. In three days the web of the spider was completed; nor could I avoid thinking that the insect seemed to exult in the new abode which it had built and finished with incredible diligence. (5 *clauses.*)

—*Sagacity of the Spider.*

58. I must own I was greatly surprised, when I saw the spider immediately sally out, and in less than a minute weave a new web round its captive, by which the motion of its wings was stopped; and when it was fairly hampered in this way, it was seized and dragged into the hole. (8 *clauses.*)

—*Sagacity of the Spider.*

59. Ye, who still linger on the threshold of life, doubting which road to choose, remember that when years are passed, and your feet stumble in the dark mountain, you will cry bitterly, but cry in vain, —"O youth, return! O give me back my early days!" (8 *clauses.*)

—*The Two Roads.*

60. Every one who is not blind has seen a butterfly,—that light and happy insect, which flies from flower to flower, in fields and gardens, adding brightness and beauty wherever it goes. (4 *clauses.*)

61. Stern daughter of the voice of God,
O Duty! if that name thou love,
Who art a light to guide, a rod
To check the erring, and reprove,—
Thou who art victory and law,
When empty terrors overawe,—
From vain temptations dost set free
And calms't the weary strife of frail humanity!
There are who ask not if thine eye
Be on them, who in love and truth,
Where no misgiving is, rely
Upon the genial sense of youth. (12 *clauses.*)

—*Wordsworth.*

ANALYSIS OF EXAMPLE (61.)

Clause	Kind
A.—Stern daughter of the voice of God, O Duty, if thou love that name	*Adverb-Clause to H*
B.—Who art a light to guide (men,)	*Adjective-Clause to A (thou.)*
C.—(Who art) a rod to check and reprove the erring	*Adjective-Clause to A. Co-ordin. with B.*
D.—Who art victory and law,	*Adjective-Clause to A. Co-ordin. with B.*
E.—When empty terrors overawe,	*Adverb-Clause to D.*
F.—(Who) dost set (men) free from vain temptations	*Adjective-Clause to A. Co-ordin. with B.*
G.—And (who) calmest the weary strife of frail humanity ...	*Co-ordinate Clause to F.*
H.—There are	*Principal Clause.*
I.—Who ask not	*Noun-Clause to H.*
J.—If thine eye be on them,	*Noun-Clause to I.*
K.—Who in love and truth rely upon genial sense of youth ...	*Noun-Clause to H. Co-ordin. with I.*
L.—Where no misgiving is ...	*Adverb-Clause to K.*

Detailed Analysis of Example 61

THE CLAUSE.	Kind of clause	Connective	I Subject	II Adjuncts to Subject	III PREDICATE				IV Adjuncts to Predicate
					Finite Verb	Object with Adjuncts		Complement with Adjuncts	
						Indirect	Direct		
A Stern daughter of the voice of God, O Duty, if that name thou love,	Adverb clause to H	if	thou	O Duty, stern daughter of the voice of God,	love	nil	that name	nil	nil
B—Who art a light to guide (men),	Adject clause to A (thou)	who	who	nil	art	nil	nil	a light to guide men	nil
C—(Who art) a rod to check and reprove the erring,	Adject clause to A (Co ord with B)	(who)	(who)	nil	(art)	nil	nil	a rod to check and reprove the erring	nil
D—Who art victory and law,	Adject clause to A (Co-ord with B)	who	who	nil	art	nil	nil	victory and law	nil
E—When empty terrors overawe (men)	Adverb clause to D	when	terrors	empty	overawe	nil	(men)	nil	nil

F —(Who dost set (men) free from vain temptations	Adject. clause to A (Co-ord. with B)	wh	wh		es se	l	me ı	free from va n temptations	nil
G —And (who) calmest the weary strife of frail humanity	Co ordinate w th F	and	who)	n l	alr es	l	the weary strife of frail l uman ty	nil	nil
H.—Are	Princ pal clause		Cla se I	l	are	nil	nil	nil	nil
I —Who ask not	Noun clause to H		who	n	a k not	n l	Clause J	nil	nil
J —If thine eye be on them	Noun clause to I	if	eye	ne	be	l	n l	on the n	nil
K —Whom love and truth rely upon the genial sense of youth	Noun clause to H (Co-ord with I)	who	who	nil	re y upon		the genial sense of youth	nil	in love and truth
L.—Where no misgiving is.	Adverb clause to K.	where	misg v ng	no	•	nil	nil	nil	nil